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ABSTRACT

A guide for infusing global perspectives on communication into the social studies curriculum of grades 4-6 is designed to be used selectively by teachers. The four major objectives are to help students: (1) understand how the world's system can influence the individual's life; (2) recognize different viewpoints; (3) develop an ability to make judgments about world influence on one's personal life; and (4) recognize that personal actions can influence world interrelatedness. Section I presents ideas for developing nine communication activities. The activities involve language skills, dialect investigation, cross-cultural communication, technological change, consumer education, and an understanding of conflicting viewpoints. For each topic, areas of study are specified, objectives are listed, and teaching techniques are suggested. Section II presents six self-contained lessons which demonstrate how global perspectives fit in with the existing curriculum. The lessons involve language exploration, verbal and nonverbal communication, body movement, historical perspectives on communication, and people's feelings about animals. Multiple activities--such as dictionary games, simulations, story telling, TV viewing, and class discussion--are suggested for each lesson, along with a description of areas of study, objectives, suggested time, and required materials. A subject index is included. Teacher and reviewer comments are solicited. (Author/DB)

GLOBAL PERSPECTIVES:

A HUMANISTIC INFLUENCE ON THE CURRICULUM

COMMUNICATION

Number Three in a Series of K-12 Guides

Part B, 4-6

Center for Global Perspectives

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GLOBAL PERSPECTIVES:
A HUMANISTIC INFLUENCE ON THE CURRICULUM

SUGGESTIONS FOR CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT ON COMMUNICATION

Part B, 4-6

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GLOBAL PERSPECTIVES:

A HUMANISTIC INFLUENCE ON THE CURRICULUM

INTRODUCTION TO THE SERIES

ABOUT THE PROGRAM

GLOBAL PERSPECTIVES: A HUMANISTIC INFLUENCE ON THE CURRICULUM is a program in development. Its over-all purpose is to identify and implement viewpoints and approaches which can help provide the kind of schooling today's students need -- an education which can help them understand the nature of our changing world and their relationship to that world. We can do this, not by adding new courses, but by infusing the existing curriculum with what we call global perspectives.

The materials in this booklet -- one in a series of four -- are a step in the development process. On the following pages you will find a background discussion of the program and then two separate, but related, approaches. Book I contains ideas for developing your own lessons and activities, using concepts as a means of achieving program goals. Book II has complete sample lessons to demonstrate how global perspectives fit readily into your existing courses and teaching practices.

While separate pieces of the program can easily be inserted into curriculum plans with little advance preparation, we think a careful reading of the introduction to the series will give you a better idea of what we are trying to achieve and why we have placed such a heavy emphasis on both concept learning and multidisciplinary activities.

This nationwide program, supported by a grant from the National Endowment for the Humanities, has major testing sites in California, Colorado, Connecticut, Minnesota, Maryland, and North Carolina. Criticisms and comments from teachers and students at those testing locations -- as well as all others who read and use the materials -- will make a major contribution to the refinement and reshaping of the ideas and learning activities. Consequently, in whatever way you review or try out the material, we urge you to send us your thoughts and suggestions.

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THE GOALS OF EDUCATION WITH A GLOBAL PERSPECTIVE

In the decade of the 1970s, new responsibilities have been placed on those responsible for the formal education of our young people. During the 1960s, demands were for a sort of band-aid job of teaching about burning social issues -- civil rights, urban problems, poverty, environmental protection. The tide now seems to be shifting, and the schools are being called to account for the apparently dismal showing of students in basic skills and basic civic literacy.

Education with a global perspective is not intended to detract from these important areas. On the contrary, we are convinced that this global perspectives program can be a valuable aid in improving reading and writing skills, and in achieving a better understanding of American history and government.

That may sound like a rather bold contention, and we will deal with it below in our discussion of concepts and basic skills. First, though, let's consider the central question of why global perspectives are so important to education today.

As a beginning, it's important for us to recognize that we are training students for a world far different from the one their teachers grew up in. Today's kindergarten students, who will be young adults when we enter the 21st century, must be able to adapt to life on a planet which is rapidly assuming the proportions of a global village. Each day the world becomes more tightly interrelated -- an event or decision in some distant place has far-reaching and often surprising consequences on people in other parts of the planet. The kinds of careers our students will be able to choose among and where and how they will work and live -- their living standards and lifestyles -- will all be influenced in countless ways by the systemness of our interrelated planet.

This global interdependence is not an unqualified trend toward peace and international cooperation, nor is it necessarily a purely negative force, that threatens traditional loyalities and institutions. It is simply a fact of existence and offers both opportunities and challenges. Learning to cope with an interrelated world which continues to change at a dizzying pace is a lifelong task for each individual.

This need for new kinds of learning has been well dramatized by the general response of Americans to the issue of energy. Energy, in fact, provided us with the first widespread warning of the implications of global interrelatedness. When we found ourselves waiting in gasoline lines in 1973, while crude

oil prices were doubling and doubling again, we had a vivid demonstration of how our living patterns could be dislocated by events halfway around the world.

We responded to that crisis more with a sense of urgency than of foresight. Our government announced the start of "Project Independence" -- designed to free Americans from the tangled webs of worldwide energy systems. In our eagerness to return to "normalcy," we rather easily discarded some of our just acquired concerns about environmental protection; we approved and expedited both the Alaska Pipeline and a renewal of off-shore oil drilling.

Those gasoline lines are almost forgotten now, and so are many of the promises we made about conserving energy. By mid-1976, we were consuming more oil than ever before. And in the meantime, the interrelated networks that contributed to the 1973 crisis have become larger and more complex. We now import more Arab oil than we did then, and by 1980, more than half our supplies will come from foreign sources. In other words, despite the rhetoric for conservation and energy independence, we have become more susceptible to disruptions in these worldwide systems.

We've discussed this case at some length because it provides such a striking foreshadowing of the kind of world our students will be living in. There will be future energy crises, and there will also be shortages of other goods and natural resources. The indications of our growing interrelatedness can lead to both gloom and optimism.

On the one hand, for example, it is now painfully clear that the devestation to our biosphere can be reversed only on a global scale -- the potential ruin of the world's oceans cannot be halted by the actions of any single nation. The same is true for pollution of the air, land, and fresh water.

On the more positive side, living as closer neighbors with our four billion fellow humans, offers new opportunities to share the richness and wisdom of strikingly diverse cultures. Many of our present students will soon be living and working in other countries -- as employees of global companies, or as representatives of national and international agencies. Others will travel the globe freely, and all will be exposed to various kinds of cross-cultural communication.

To take advantage of these potentials, we must learn to deal with the complexities and the problems. Our future citizens will need to understand and respond creatively to disruptions like the energy crisis. They will need to perceive and adjust to the ways global interrelatedness impinges on their daily lives. And they will have to deal with local concerns within a global setting -- recognizing, for example, that a local landfill controversy can have consequences for neighboring communities, for the entire nation, and for the health of worldwide environmental systems.

Education with a global perspective, therefore, means equipping this generation of students with the understandings and skills needed for dealing effectively with life on a shrinking and rapidly changing planet. In general, it requires developing attitudes and approaches adequate to encompass the interrelatedness or systemness of the planet. In somewhat more detail, the

goals of global perspectives education can be stated as:

1. an understanding of the world's systemness and how it can influence one's own life;

2. a recognition that others may have viewpoints about the interrelated world that differ from one's own;

3. an ability to make judgments and decisions about ways in which world systemness impinges on one's own life or community or nation.

4. a recognition that one's actions can have on influence on some effects of world interrelatedness and a determination to exercise that influence.

It is not a simple task to help young people achieve the needed perceptions, awarenesses, understandings, skills, and abilities to act constructively. When there is inadequate understanding and limited perception, it is all too easy to ignore the complexities of global interrelatedness or to become overwhelmed by the magnitude of the issues. The result then is likely to be apathy, deriving from the feeling that one's actions don't make a difference. A Scholastic Magazine on-going survey of teen-age attitudes revealed that fewer students planned to take on active part in the 1976 presidential election campaign than was the case in previous years. This is precisely the kind of trend our democracy cannot afford.

If we are to develop the kinds of viewpoints and willingness to act we've spoken of, we must involve all aspects of the curriculum at all grade levels. As long as "global studies" are considered a special element of schooling, involving only such courses as world studies or international relations, we will make little progress toward improving the quality of education for a changing world. It is essential that we recognize the vital role that must also be played by the humanities, by career education, by industrial arts -- in a word, by all subject areas.

This importance of all elements of the curriculum will become more evident when you read through the suggestions for activities and the demonstration lessons. As an introduction, the following case studies will illustrate this emphasis of the program and also the value of beginning to provide education with a global perspective at the earliest grade levels.

EXAMPLES OF THE PROGRAM IN ACTION

One of the program's testing sites is an inner city elementary school in San Francisco. The children in a K-3 class had first learned some basic ideas about the concept of *change*. They measured changes in their physical growth and constructed murals illustrating such facets of personal change as pictures of themselves as infants. They observed physical education in classes of older children to identify the kinds of skills which would soon be within their range. They measured changes in plants and experimented with changes in the physical arrangement of their classroom.

The teachers next turned the children's attention to *systems* -- a basic element in the concept of interdependence. By manipulating toys and other familiar objects, they developed a mental image of the concept: that a system is made up of parts that depend on each other; if one part is missing or broken or not functioning properly, the whole system is affected. The class then explored such systems as their own bodies, their families, their classroom; they discovered and told about other kinds of systems and role played real and imagined machine systems.

On a field trip to discover systemness in their neighborhood, they found that the traffic control system at a street corner did not achieve the desired results and represented a serious danger to pedestrians. With the help of their teachers, they drew up a petition to the San Francisco city government and were granted a hearing by the Traffic Control Division. Accompanied by the teachers and a few parents they went to the hearing and some of the older children presented their case. They explained what they had learned about systems and what was wrong with this particular system.

Then came three weeks of waiting -- a lesson in itself -- and finally the decision. Their petition was approved. A new traffic signal was installed along with clearer sidewalk markings -- vivid and constant reminders of their first success in citizenship participation. In describing the incident, one third grader wrote: "It made me feel like Martin Luther King the third."

On the surface, this experience seems to have little direct bearing on the goals of global perspectives education as we described these earlier. But actually these children were acquiring essential building blocks for the kinds of perceptions and awarenesses, and the willingness to participate in the democratic process, which will be so valuable to them as adults. When in later grades, such concepts as change, interdependence, and communication are applied to the ways in which global interrelatedness touches our lives, learning will be much more successful if the beginning models are developed in the primary grades.

A high school in the rural school district of San Ramon, California, illustrates the program at work in upper grade levels. There, a class worked on an environmental unit developed from the project. The core of the unit, titled "On Your Own," is a simulation in which each student has to plan survival strategies for a year in a Walden Pond setting, i.e., outside materials are available but little outside assistance. The goals of the unit are to come to a clearer understanding of: interdependence between humans and their environment; how people alter natural systems and what the possible consequences are; and what kinds of things people need for survival, including companionship.

The unit involved reading about survival in other settings and comparison of the students' lifestyles with the kinds of tasks facing pioneers on any frontier. Each student kept a journal of his or her progress; they used mathematics skills to arrange their budgets and calculate the benefits of alternative purchases; in the concluding lesson, they investigated the asethetic urges of people, the need to create beauty in the design of even the most functional items -- storage jars, plates, weathervanes, and so on.

The San Ramon teachers found that the students really "got into" the effort; "they asked advice of everyone they could think of -- math and science teachers, the owner of the local hardward store, and farmers." Art, literature, earth science, ecology, mathematics, and history all combined to provide insights into the basic needs of all humans and into some alternative ways of meeting those needs. Such understandings are an important step in perceiving culture as an amazing achievement of the human specie, rather than the particular living patterns and oddities of one society or another.

These are sketchy examples, but we hope they are sufficient to indicate that the kind of learning we are concerned with can and should emerge from all courses and at all grade levels. In this way, by the time students reach the upper high school grades, they should be able to deal more effectively with the complexities of global interrelatedness in such topics as: food-population pressures; the uses and control of the seas; the spread of nuclear and conventional arms; the interlocking of economic systems; and the role of global corporations.

CONCEPT LEARNING AND BASIC SKILLS

Concept learning has been with us for some time, but frequently has not offered the kind of assistance to learning that was hoped for. GLOBAL PERSPECTIVES: A HUMANISTIC INFLUENCE ON THE CURRICULUM is based on the assumption that concept learning can do the job. In fact, it is vital in developing the students' ability to process and make sense out of vast amounts of information and stimuli.

Specialists in this field of learning point out that there are at least five ways in which the term *concept* is used. In this program we have focused on just two of these possible applications:

1. *Concepts are tools for helping students create order out of seemingly unrelated experiences and data.* In this sense, they provide what James M. Becker refers to when he wrote:

> "What students need is a framework for sifting, sorting, categorizing, classifying, evaluating, and choosing among many messages received from the world environment. Content then becomes a means of reaching a more basic objective -- developing a conceptual scheme broad enough to yield insights and hypotheses which can help students understand and participate intelligently in society."*

Concepts can provide the kind of framework Becker refers to. But to achieve this the learner must be able to build on a sound beginning model of what is meant by *change, conflict*, or any other concept. This is what we have tried to achieve in this program.

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* James M. Becker, "Organizing the Social Studies Program," *Social Studies Curriculum Development: Prospects and Problems*, 39th Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies, 1969, P. 97.

At the same time, concepts are not ends in themselves. Our purpose is not to teach students all than can be learned about any of the four concepts dealt with in this project: *interdependence*, *conflict*, *communication*, and *change*. When applied to specific content, they are useful as tools for organizing information. Thus, the primary-grade class which learned about systems had acquired a tool which could be applied to new experiences and information. At this grade level, and through succeeding ones, the idea of systems (or, eventually, of interdependence) becomes *one* of the links that help the student see relationships between, say, the systemness of street and traffic patterns and the interrelatedness of life in a community, or the ecology of a pond and the delicate balances of the biosphere.

As students proceed through the pre-college grades, their mental image of each concept will change and grow, enabling them to deal with increasingly complex subject matter. These organizing tools then, while not providing miraculous solutions to basic skills problems, do offer students the means of "sifting, sorting, categorizing, classifying," and so on. We are convinced that such abilities will give students valuable assistance in mastering the skills of reading, writing, and computation.

Basic skills acquisition should also be enhanced by the second way in which concepts are used in the program:

2. *The four concepts chosen for the program represent broad topics or themes that are essential for understanding the nature of the world we live in.* We have emphasized the idea of increasing *interdependence* on a worldwide scale. *Change* is also a major characteristic of our world and all signs point to an accelerating pace of both technological and social change. And change also creates *conflict* -- conflict between groups that come into closer contact or conflict which serves to resolve issues created by change. Finally, as we find our lives more closely intertwined with others, we are in need of clear *communication* across cultural boundaries; we also must find ways to make wiser use of the miracles of the new electronic age of communication.

In a sense, therefore, education with a global perspective involves focusing on the major realities of modern life. This gives us some clues to content selection and helps us choose content that deals with the questions already in young people's minds: Who am I? Why am I here? What do I want from life? What is the good life? Can I do something to achieve it, or am I the helpless victim of gigantic forces over which I have no control?

In building some of our course content around these four major concepts, we do not always have to focus on global matters. Instead, content should offer students experience with these themes at all social levels -- the individual, the group, the community, the nation, and the world. Here is an example:

In a prototype which led to this project -- a multimedia package titled *Patterns of Human Conflict* (Prentice-Hall Media, 1974), students begin the unit by developing their own definitions of conflict. Through short stories, drama, poetry, journalism, and social science, they refine their definitions, recognize ways in which some conflicts can be healthy or functional, and analyze various ways of resolving conflicts. In one filmstrip, they examine

case studies of the theme involving a youth trapped by personal and group conflict over drug use; the civil rights march on Selma which involved large groups and eventually engulfed the entire nation; and conflict over sharing the resources of the world's oceans.

It is essential to deal with the theme in this multilevel fashion if global perspectives are to be more than the analysis of international events. The concept provides a unifying thread which enables the student to understand how the elements of a global perspective relate to his or her own life. In this way, both process and content combine to increase student motivation. The study of the American Civil War becomes something other than a remote historical event; instead, it becomes a case study in how people become caught up in conflict and why some conflicts spiral into violence. The understandings that emerge contribute to self-awareness and to a better comprehension of the world around us.

One final point needs to be made. A major responsibility of schooling is to provide adequate citizenship training for the emerging generation. Our democratic society can not afford a citizenry ignorant of the ways in which our daily lives, our local issues, and our national policies are interconnected with all other parts of the planet. When a town finds that its major industry is shifting operations to Mexico or Taiwan, a reaction of helpless frustration does not help those involved. If, however, they understand the forces that created such a situation, at the very least the event makes sense to them, and may lead to a search for alternative solutions. Or it may lead to the conclusion that this is one of those events -- like the energy crisis -- over which the individual has no control once it is allowed to happen. The task is to find ways to adapt to the situation -- and to work to prevent such events.

Our future citizens will also be participating in decisions that influence the nature and quality of life in our own nation and in the world. We are faced with such urgent questions as: What can we do to alleviate the suffering of those who live in abject poverty and hunger? How can we make the wisest use of our dwindling supplies of natural resources? Is the accelerating scale of arms and nuclear technology necessary? How can we learn to get along with people whose cultures or ideologies are markedly different from our own? What kinds of policies will make our built environment healthier and protect our threatened natural environment?

These questions and countless more will face our students in their adult years. All these issues affect our individual lives as well as the lives of all other inhabitants of the planet. Only a citizenry that understands the complexities of global interrelatedness -- and can weigh the consequences of various alternatives -- will be in a position to confront these issues in constructive and creative ways.

To sum up, we can say that improving the quality of education in general is closely associated with global perspectives education. Skills in reading, writing, and computation will improve when skill development involves meaningful content -- exploring the world around us and our relationship to it. Our democratic society needs citizens willing to participate in the decision-making process. And this commitment depends on our young people recognizing how their actions -- and those of the groups to which they belong -- influence, and are influenced by, events and actions in other parts of our interrelated world.

USING THESE MATERIALS

The remainder of this concept guide is divided into two parts: Book I contains ideas for developing your own lessons and activities; Book II consists of usable lessons which demonstrate how global perspectives fit in with what you are already teaching.

To make the best use of both the ideas and the advance planning will be needed. This is particularly tru[illegible] ng multi-disciplinary activities. For the elementary grad[illegible] ning may require involving teachers of special areas such as art and music. It will also mean using activities which combine reading and social studies, writing and science, or any number of combinations. Teachers who have experimented with these approaches find that the extra planning is well rewarded by student interest and achievement.

At upper grade levels, planning becomes more difficult because we have become so used to teaching in isolated subject areas. However, more and more schools are developing channels for coordinating efforts across disciplinary lines. The materials in this guide are flexible and adaptable to local needs. If no cooperation between departments is possible, individual teachers can still make use of most activities. And, if you are already involved in or planning cross-disciplinary approaches, these ideas and lessons should fit into many different kinds of coordinated activity.

Two possible ways of fitting the materials into existing teaching plans are:

1. After reading through the booklet, simply select those topics or activities that seem best suited to your needs;

2. Use the subject index at the back of the book to locate themes you plan to cover in your courses.

A word of caution: Since we have divided the materials according to grade clusters rather than into each of the 13 grades, you are bound to find some lessons that are above or below your students' ability level. In such cases, you may be able to make adjustments and use the material, but there may be a few activities that simply won't work. This is particularly true at the primary grade level where the leap from pre-reader to reader may pose obstacles.

COMMUNICATION IN THE K-12 CURRICULUM

We will be using the term *communication* in its broadest sense -- it encompasses the many ways of sending and receiving messages between people, as well as learning to deal more effectively with the various forms of mass media. The latter, for example, would include distinguishing fact from opinion, identifying hidden messages, and analyzing the influence of the media on lifestyles and personal decisions.

The following is a list of some of the goals developed in this set of guides. The list is not definitive or final. You will probably discover that other goals are also being met and, of course, you may not be working toward all of these at a given grade level. It is important to keep in mind that our basic aim is to provide students with a beginning mental image of what is involved in the word communication. Only in this way can we avoid the all-too-common situation in which students create their own mental image which turns out to be distorted or inadequate and thus fails to aid them in processing information.

Through experience, the student will gradually add to and modify his or her idea of communication. This will be achieved by applying the concept in increasingly sophisticated ways to a wide variety of subject matter. Thus, the overarching goal is to learn to use this concept as one more tool for making sense out of the world around one.

GOALS OF LESSONS FOCUSING ON COMMUNICATION

Students will

1. recognize that communication includes not only language and artistic expression, but also appearances and behavior;

2. understand that clear communication involves quality as well as quantity -- i.e., we can talk with friends or family members at great length and still miscommunicate;

3. perceive that the increased quantity of communication across national or cultural boundaries does not necessarily lead to understanding and acceptance;

4. gain experience in coping with such barriers to clear communication as
   - -cultural differences in behavior and values,
   - -misperception,
   - -language differences,
   - -ethnocentrism,
   - -stereotyping;

5. improve skills in writing, speaking, listening, and interpreting non-verbal forms of communication;

6. experiment with various forms of self-expression in writing and art forms;

7. understand that good communication depends on language and thinking skills -- including logic and the ability to recognize and analyze alternatives;

8. gain appreciation for the rich spectrum of ways in which humans convey messages to each other;

9. compare human and animal means of communication and cultural similarities and differences in communicating.

BOOK I: IDEAS FOR DEVELOPING ACTIVITIES FOCUSING ON COMMUNICATION

Students in the primary grades should begin to do some work with concepts. If your students have not had any experience with *systems* (interdependence), *conflict*, *change*, and *co[illegible]cation*, you may want to develop some introductory lessons early [illegible] school year. Activities in the K-3 handbooks can be [illegible]apte[illegible] your own course materials. You will also find that some [illegible]uggestions and lessons in this book can serve to introduce essential beginning models.

It is still important, in the 4-6 grades, to apply concepts to concrete and immediate experiences. In this way, each student's mental image of, say, conflict will be expanded and modified as new information is encountered.

Unfortunately, textbooks often ask students to make a quantum leap from the familiar world they have focused on in earlier grades to subject matter that is simply too complex for them. This seems especially true in the social studies. As a result, many students find themselves overwhelmed by masses of information that seem to bear little relationship to their own lives and interests.

In this program, consequently, we have tried to apply concepts to the familiar world of the students, to build on their natural curiosity and interests. This approach provides them with the tools they need to make sense of experiences, as they explore more distant horizons. Much of this content will seem to have little to do with understanding world interrelatedness. And yet, even when discovering something like the dynamics of communication within a family, your students will be gaining skills that later can be applied to topics like the communications problems encountered in trying to reach a workable treaty for the uses of the world's oceans.

The upper elementary grades are an important transition time. Students are in the process of moving from the egocentric world of childhood to group membership and a perception of the larger world. While caution is needed to avoid pushing them too fast, a sound understanding of concepts can help them stretch their thinking from the immediate and personal to content that is more remote and abstract.

Of course, no single concept is sufficient for the kinds of educational goals we have in mind. It is important to help students work with other concepts, in addition to communication, where those are most appropriate to the subject matter. Interdependence, for example, provides a good tool for making sense out of the development

of modern industry and assembly-line production. Conflict is a more useful concept for analyzing the struggles of factories workers to gain better conditions and higher wages. Work with this guide, therefore, should be seen as part of a larger effort to develop students' ability to understand and deal with a number of concepts.

The ideas and sample lessons in this booklet primarily are suggestive. You will find numerous other places in all courses where you can help students understand and make better use of the concept of communication. This, in turn, is a step in their acquiring the tools and skills to organize information about a complex, changing and often disturbing world.

TOPIC 1: SIGNS AND SYMBOLS

The development of language skills is, of course, one of the major functions of schooling. Some of this skill development will come easier - or make more sense - if we spend some time dealing with the question of what language is. How do people communicate? Why have human societies developed complicated systems of verbal and written language? Are there times when a gesture or a symbol will convey a message better than words?

In the ideas outlined here, your students can gain some experience with different kinds of communication through signs and symbols. The should begin to recognize that, for many purposes, a spoken or writte language is essential and that the languages we have devised grew out simpler forms of symbols. These experiences, in turn, build toward t ability *to conceptualize culture* (at least language as one part of cu re) *as varying among human groups but serving universal functions.*

AREAS OF STUDY

Language Arts (nature and origins of language, nonverbal communication, foreign languages)

Social Studies (U.S. history [Native Americans and settlers], cross-cultural contacts)

Safety

OBJECTIVES

Students will

1. give examples of the advantages and limitations of signs and symbols as means of communicating;

2. compare different forms and functions of various signs and symbols;

3. recognize symbols as a means for some cross-cultural communication;

4. understand the importance of spoken language for clean communication;

5. recognize that language serves the same functions in all cultures.

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS

A. Develop some activities that will highlight how much we rely on spoken language. We take it so much for granted that often we notice its importance only when we can't make full use of it - for example, if we find ourselves in a foreign country where no one speaks our language.

1. If you feel a bit shaky with your own command of another language, invite a visitor to the class for this activity. Ask the person to speak only in a language the students don't know and then have two or three volunteers try to communicate with him alone. The students could pretend they are in the visitor's country (or vice versa) and have them try to find (or give) simple directions - e.g. how to get to the nearest restaurant, the school cafeteria, or an airport.

   The class will be delighted with the results. What is perfectly clear to them seems to mean nothing to this other person. Reverse the roles and have the visitor explain something to the students - perhaps similar kinds of directions.

   Ten minutes of this should be enough. Some important questions you can draw from this simple experience are:

   (a) Why might you (the students) have trouble traveling in another country? (different language, hard to find your way around)

   (b) What do people who speak different languages do when they try to communicate? (Draw out the answer that they raise their voices and use their hands a lot. Ask for specific examples of what people tried to do with their hands - pointing, etc.)

   (c) If you have bilingual students in your class, you can talk about some of the problems they encounter. Or, if you have studied immigration as part of American history you can discuss the incidents that might occur in a city like New York where dozens of languages were spoken - and still are for that matter.

2. Go back to the idea of gestures or talking with hands. Have the students experiment with trying to give simple directions with hand signals. Alternatively, let them draw directions without using words. They should find that they can achieve some, but very limited, communication this way. If drawn directions are used, save these for later use.

B. Explore ways that (a) gestures and (b) symbols are important for helping us communicate. Some gestures to practice, or have students find and draw pictures of, would be:

- a traffic policeman
- a ground control officer at an airport
- an orchestra leader
- hand communications between Native Americans and white settlers
- a football referee or baseball umpire

Questions: Why were gestures used in these cases? Why couldn't people use written or spoken language?

Some symbols we rely on are also important:

street crossings	traffic signs (curves, etc.)
railroad crossings	restrooms

You might divide the class into groups and see which can draw the largest numbers of signs or symbols they can think of. No words should appear on any of these. Again, through questioning, the class should see that these symbols are useful as a kind of code or shorthand that allows fast and clear communication *for certain purposes.*

C. International Symbols

As cross-cultural contacts increase, a growing number of internationally recognized symbols are coming into use. You might have two teams research into examples for class reports - one finding out about symbols used at the Olympic games; the other focusing on signs to aid travelers. (Many of our traffic signs now use international symbols for such things as rest stops, restaurants, hotels, etc.) The school librarian can help find sources. The class should be able to figure out what most of these symbols mean.

D. The importance of language - Ask the class: If gestures and symbols are so easy to use, why is language so important?

Some will remember the opening activity and recognize that there are limits to what we can do with signs and symbols. To dramatize this, for each of the successful uses of gestures or symbols, you can invent a situation where spoken or written language is vital.

For example: suppose the traffic policeman wants to tell a driver that a bridge is washed out. Would it be easier to say this or use gestures?

Suppose the airplane is still in flight, wind currents have changed, and the pilot must land from a different direction. The students will see that this message could only be conveyed through radio contact.

Ask the class to supply other examples.

E. Differences in languages. Use resource books on the origin of language. Try for a variety, such as: Hittite, Chinese, Egyptian, Phoenician.

Compare the students' drawings of directions with early pictographic writing. Drawings showing the evolution of a language's symbols should help the class gain some sense of why we have most difficulty with languages based on different symbols. Those using common roots - the Indo-European languages - are at least similar to what we are familiar with.

You might invite a linguistics specialist to talk about how and why different cultures have made different uses of the alphabet we use.

To sum up the lessons, have the students draw some inferences about:

- how and why we use signs and symbols;
- how the origins of languages are similar to the use of signs and symbols;
- why we need to be able to draw on both signs/symbols and written/spoken language to communicate clearly.

EXPANDING THE TOPIC

Your students can have fun learning about common root words or words we have adopted from other cultures, especially if they are studying other cultures or a foreign language. Language should also be seen as essential for learning one's own cultural ways - it is how culture is passed from one generation to another.

RESOURCES

Some filmstrips in Harper and Row's "On Location With Language" could be used with many of the activities outlined here. For example:

"The Nature of Language: So Easy a Child Can Use It!"
"Visual Communication: The Eyes Have It!"
" From  to Sun: The Story of Writing"

Order from Harper and Row School Media Department. The price is about $20 per sound filmstrip.

TOPIC 2: DIALECTS OF ENGLISH

Many 4-6 level texts omit or underplay the role of dialects in English speech, perhaps because of concern for teaching the basics of standard English. But learning about dialects can give children more self-confidence and help reduce the prejudice that stems from a notion that others "talk funny." This is one of many important steps we can take in helping students *avoid ethnocentric bias in perceiving their own and other cultures.*

AREAS OF STUDY

Language Arts (speaking, writing skills, dialects)

Social Studies (multi-ethnic societies)

OBJECTIVES

Students will

1. identify some characteristics of their own dialect, and recognize that everyone speaks a dialect;
2. distinguish different dialects in recorded poems or speeches;
3. translate a dialect song or paragraph into standard English, and compare the two versions;
4. use scenarios to show how standard English in some situations helps reduce misunderstandings;
5. recognize that dialects are not related to cultural superiority or inferiority.

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS

A. Introduce the word "dialect" to your class; have students look it up in the dictionary. Emphasize that dialects belong to *groups* (cultural or geographical); each person differs in the way he or she speaks, but dialect is a "difference" shared with others. The Holt 6th grade

text, *The Arts and Skills of English,* suggests some simple ways students can "test" for their own dialect, i.e., do you say "He dived" or "He dove" off the board? Do you call the water container a "pail" or a "bucket"? Try making up your own list of items; students who have lived in other places may be able to help. You can include:

- Word choice (pocketbook, purse)
- Pronunciation ("vase" as "vahz" or "vays")
- Use of "r", especially at end of words
- Grammar ("I got awake," "I woke up")
- Speech rhythms (slow/fast; pattern of emphasis)

Individuals may assess their own dialect; or tape class members' choices from the dialect items so everyone can hear them. Be sure everyone understands there is no right or wrong in dialects, only differences.

B. Give the class a chance to hear a variety of English dialects. Look for records of poets, storytellers, etc. whose works your class may be studying. Students can compare the accents and word choice of, say, Robert Frost as a New Englander; Langston Hughes as a Black southerner; John Kennedy as a Bostonian of Irish descent.

C. You can get at the color and usefulness of dialects by having students translate a dialect song or paragraph into "standard" English. Any of the "Bre'r Rabbit" tales will do for this, or popular or folk songs in dialect ("Git Along Little Doggies"). Include a non-U.S. English dialect song like "Waltzing Matilda" or the Caribbean "Matilda." Ask the students: Why do you think the writer, living where he did, chose those special words or rhythms? How is the standard English version different? What do you like about the original version?

D. Integrate learning about dialects with lessons on slang, formal, and informal English. Emphasize that conflicts sometimes arise when people mistake differences in dialect for differences in education or intelligence or likeability. That's where knowing standard English can sometimes help bridge a gap. Have students write and act out brief scenarios using local informal language for talking to the principal; giving directions to a new student from another state; telephoning a government agency in Washington for information. Act out and discuss possible misunderstandings and problems; then rewrite the scenarios in standard English.

TOPIC 3: CROSS-CULTURAL COMMUNICATION

At various points in the 4-6 social studies curriculum, you will encounter some examples of cross-cultural communication. You'll have to be alert to these since texts rarely develop them as examples of barriers to understanding or acceptance of culturally diverse people. With a little extra planning, you can build on these cases to help students *develop progressively deeper levels of cross-cultural awareness, and to see cultures - including their own - within a frame of reference relatively free of ethnocentric bias.*

AREAS OF STUDY

Social Studies	(U.S. history - intergroup relations, ethnic studies, culture studies, world history)
Language Arts	(creative writing, critical thinking)

OBJECTIVES

Students will

1. through role playing, identify cultural barriers to understanding or accepting others;
2. evaluate examples of stereotyping, ethnocentrism, and prejudice in stories and case studies;
3. form hypotheses about members of another culture from limited evidence.

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS

A. Some social studies texts will describe barriers to cross-cultural understanding that stem from differing social and value assumptions. You can bring these examples closer to the students' realm of experience by simulating contact between two different peoples. For example:

> Select two "cultural groups" who will engage in a trading session - e.g. candy for fruit. Give one group a set of values or conventions unlike those you give the other. One group may believe in shaking hands, spreading their wares on the ground, and offering items to others for trade; the other may dislike physical contact with others and believe it is wrong to let go of trade items. Keep your groups ignorant of one another's customs; have the rest of the class act as observers.
>
> Bring the groups together in a brief, silent trading session. If each remains consistent with its beliefs, they will have a hard time completing trade.
>
> Then discuss the communications problems and reasons for them. Relate this experience to cases encountered in your social studies work.

B. Other major barriers to cross-cultural communication include *stereotyping, ethnocentrism,* and *prejudice.* (See the Conflict Guide in this series for more ideas for treating these themes.)

Additional insights can be gained if you bring up these forms of behavior in relation to writing and critical thinking skills you may be working with. Examples:

- drawing correct generalizations
- the difference between logical and illogical conclusions
- weighing all evidence before reaching a decision

As you come across examples of stereotyping, ethnocentrism, or prejudice in stories or texts, ask the students how these blinders lead people into mistaken conclusions, generalizations or decisions.

C. When studying other cultures, look for examples of contacts with other groups. Remind the class that while the ways we behave send messages, so do our artifacts - consequently, trade items, cultural borrowing, the coming of explorers, etc. all convey messages.

Choose some case studies of these kinds of contact - for example, a Native American tribe's first contact with European settlers, or a nomadic tribe's trade with people in a settlement.

On the basis of the limited contact and the objects involved, ask the students to write stories about what impressions they might form if they were members of one of the groups. For example, suppose a chief of an African kingdom receives beads, cloth, and mirrors from European explorers. What impressions might he have of these new people.

Read some of the stories aloud and talk about how these limited impressions might influence future contacts.

D. Occasionally a social studies text will describe a cross-cultural exchange in considerable detail - like a British envoys refusal to kowtow to a Chinese official in 1743 (cited in Follett's level 6 text, *Cultures in Transition,* 1976).

The class should be able to analyze such incidents in some detail. You might use such questions as:

- Do we know what both sides meant?
- How well did each side communicate its customs to the other?
- What barriers existed in this case? What do you think could have been done to make the situation better?

TOPIC 4: COMMUNICATION TOOLS

The relationship between technology and communication is complex. Students at this level can begin to recognize the kinds of tools we and others use to communicate with; and they can learn to evaluate new inventions in terms other than "newest is best." These activities represent a first step in developing *the ability to identify choices and alternatives in the management of problems such as technological change.*

AREAS OF STUDY

Social Studies (U.S. history, technology, culture studies)

Language Arts (handwriting)

Art (photography) Science (technology)

OBJECTIVES

Students will

1. keep a record of the tools involved in their own communications (received and sent) for a week;
2. write an imaginary communication record for a child in another society or historical period, and compare it with their own;
3. use a variety of writing tools, and time their performance with each to see how new technology speeds up communication.

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS

A. To encourage awareness of the tools we use for communication, have students keep a record of their own communications for a week. Ask them to note down ways they send and ways they receive language messages. Their records should include such diverse tools as pencils, loudspeakers, neon signs, and the telephone. Compare records in a classroom discussion, and talk about how recently each tool came into use.

Tie this activity into U.S. history or culture studies by asking students to write imaginary communication records for a child their age in 18th century America, or in one of the societies you are studying. You can even try writing on clay tablets. Ask: How does the difference in technology affect the way people communicate?

B. Bring home the fact that new technology speeds up communication with this classroom experiment: Choose a simple message. Have ready a set of "scratch pens" (the kind you dip in ink), with washable ink; a set of ball point pens; and a typewriter. Pass out scratch pens, ink and paper. Teach students how to use the pens. You may want to bring in some samples of the elegant old-fashioned handwriting done with these pens (a facsimile of the Declaration of Independence is a good example). Assign a couple of students to be timekeepers, as everyone copies your message with scratch pens. Then, pass out ball points and time the writing again. If no one in your class types, invite a secretary to come in and type the message, also timed. A final step might be to time the xeroxing of the typed message. Have students graph the timing results. Discuss the advantages and disadvantages of each writing tool. Ask: Is it always important to communicate quickly?

C. We often assume that "newest is best." Encourage students to evaluate new inventions by concentrating on the qualities of a much-hailed older invention, such as the camera. You may want to study the invention itself in a science lesson, by constructing pinhole cameras. Look at a variety of old and newer photographs. Discuss ways the camera is used, and improvements that have been made.

When the camera was first invented, some people thought it would naturally replace painting. Go through your textbooks, or other books that include photos and artwork as illustrations. Talk about the value of photos in some cases, and artwork in others. Ask students to think of how the feeling or message would be different if what was presented in a particular case by a photo had been a drawing, or if a painting was replaced by a photo. The same can be done for advertisements.

D. In science classes, you can explore some of the advantages and disadvantages of modern developments in communication. Some examples:

1. Space Satellites - and their variety of uses in such areas as message communication, weather forecasting, and more accurate mapping. How do these new developments help us?

2. Citizen Band radios - especially if you have students who are intrigued by them. What advantages would they serve, say, to a truck driver traveling alone for days at a time, or to a community facing a crisis, such as a storm or a lost child? Are there disadvantages (interference with TV reception; possible choking of air channels)?

3. Use the *Reader's Guide* or *New York Times Index* to read to the class the latest scientific developments in earthquake prediction. Then tell the class that in China, and a few other countries, people have looked to the behavior of animals for earthquake warnings (cows won't graze, animals are agitated, etc.) Ask, if you lived (or do live) in

an earthquake zone, which would you rely on for warning and why? No matter what answer they give, you should be able to build toward the generalization that modern science/technology is not a magic wand that automatically solves problems or improves our lives.

TOPIC 5: TV OR NOT TV

Children at this age can begin to explore the possibilities of the television medium, and to view the omniscient TV screen with some judgment. These are some of many activities involving the media that can contribute to *increased competency in making sound judgments.*

AREAS OF STUDY

Language Arts (observing, comparing, analyzing evidence)

Social Studies (polling, collecting data)

OBJECTIVES

Students will

1. compare a book and a TV program with similar themes and note the main differences;
2. identify the information in at least one commercial and describe how it appeals to viewers;
3. give examples of some possibilities in TV programming;
4. explain a new way they would like to use TV.

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS

A. Compare TV viewing to reading, to get at the special qualities of each. First, conduct a class poll of favorite programs; then collaborate with the school librarian in locating books that include similar themes and settings. Include fiction and non-fiction. Have groups of students whose TV tastes agree read these parallel books. Each group can then report to the class on a book and a program. Ask what features of each they like, and what the main differences are.

B. Even students at this age can begin to analyze commercials. Watch a commercial as a class; or, assign individual students to analyze commercials they especially like or dislike. Either

way, you will want to allow for several viewings--so the whole process may take a few days to complete. Make up a simple fill-in chart for students to work with. Possible chart items are:

- Length of commercial (A watch with a second hand needed for this.)
- Written and spoken messages
- Personality of narrator/main character
- Number and kind of scene or pictures
- Dramatic action (Is there a story?)

Conclude with questions that require students to use the data they have collected:

1. Does the commercial tell you what you think you should know in order to make an intelligent decision on whether to buy?
2. Does it appeal to you? Why or why not?
3. Do you think the message is "honest" or is it trying to convince you to buy something you don't want?

C. The range of possible TV programming is not always clear to students. Have the class go through a TV guide and check all the shows they have never seen. Apart from the "adult" programs, what kinds are least known to your group? Make up a list from this activity of programs you think your class could understand. Encourage students to see them and to report to the class as a whole.

D. It is often said that American television isn't used as well as it could be. Discuss some kinds of TV other than the largely entertainment-oriented commercial stations, such as:

- the Public Broadcasting System (educational TV);
- nationalized stations in other countries, supported by taxes (such as the BBC);
- closed circuit TV used for teaching and for sports events.

Check library media centers or film libraries at universities. You should be able to find programs the class will find appealing and yet more rewarding than usual TV fare.

Ask students to tell how *they* would like to see TV used. Get them started with questions: How could TV help more with shopping? How could it make your work or your parents' work easier? How could it

help you talk better with others around the world? How could it be more fun?

E. Judging television viewing. One of the most fruitless exercises schools can engage in is to moralize about watching TV - as does one social studies text which shows a child in front of a television set with a big X drawn across the screen. Students in this - or any other - age group are going to watch hundreds of hours of television unless they are actually prevented. Given this fact, there is much schools can do to help young people become more discerning, and perhaps more selective, in their viewing.

Peer group influence can be important. Class discussions of what makes a program good may help some of the better programs bubble to the surface. Also, without sermonizing, it is possible to talk about the dangers of television's heavy diet of violence. You might explore this from the perspective of how the class feels about having younger children (especially brothers and sisters) exposed to too much violence.

Apart from moralizing, another pitfall to avoid is transmitting the message that only programs with some learning value are worthwhile viewing. This would set the school or teacher in opposition to popular culture, and that is bound to be a losing battle. In the first place, viewing for purposes of entertainment is healthy - within limits. Second, many educational programs are needlessly dull and lifeless. You might take one such and, after viewing it, have the students - in groups or as a class - work out a set of directions for changing the program to make it more appealing.

TOPIC 6: SEEING STRAIGHT

Misperception is a major barrier to good communication. If students are aware of some major perceptual pitfalls, they should be better able to avoid them. These suggestions build on the "Misperception" section of the K-3 Communication Guide in this series; they build toward *the capacity to perceive that people have differing perceptions, attitudes and beliefs.*

AREAS OF STUDY

Social Studies (culture studies)

Language Arts (writing, points of view)

Art (ways of viewing)

OBJECTIVES

Students will

1. identify visual patterns and recognize that their labels depend partly on ideas already in their minds;

2. give examples of ways their view of the classroom reflects their own interests and leaves some things out;

3. imagine how people with different interests or values might see the same thing differently;

4. compare fictional accounts of good and poor witnesses with true anecdotes told by an attorney.

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS

A. Show that what we see is a product of the perceiver as well as the perceived by using some patterns exercises. A nearly complete circle, for instance, will look like a whole circle at first glance. Several sets of brackets may look like squares ([ ] [ ]). Set up a number of such patterns on large cards or a flip chart so they can be shown briefly to the whole class. Ask students to write down what they see in each case. (More such patterns can be found in Raben and Budd's *Human Communication Handbook.**) Extend the series to include objects that different cultures may use differently (i.e., is a short smooth stick, a drum stick, a chop stick, a counting stick?).

   Discuss the students' responses as you go through the patterns a second time. Ask: What patterns already in your head made you name the drawings as you did? Why might someone else see them differently?

B. Give students writing materials and ask them to go outside or to a different classroom. Ask everyone to write as much as he or she can remember of your own classroom in 10 minutes. When they return to the room, ask for a show of hands on who saw what features. Emphasize that no one could describe *everything* in the room; we tend to see and remember selectively. Discuss how different students' descriptions reflect their special interests. Invite the class to imagine how someone from an area or period you are studying might see the classroom. Suppose someone they've studied in American History - say Benjamin Franklin - visited the room. What would look familiar to him? What would startle or surprise him? How might he describe the room? Are there features that none of you "see" anymore--like the color of the floor, or the shape of the light fixtures--that a stranger might notice right away?

* *Human Communication Handbook: Simulations and Games,* by Brent D. Ruben and Richard W. Budd, Rochelle Park, N.J.: Hayden Book Company, 1975.

C. Use stories and your social studies text to talk about points of view and seeing. Stress that we often miscommunicate because we see the same things, but from different points of view. Knowing the other person's point of view is at least a starting point on the road to understanding. The Holt level 4 text, for instance (*Inquiring About Cultures*, 1972), tells the story of a poor rural American country woman who comes to clean for a rich family. She is soon fired because she "doesn't know how" to clean;" but she sees no point in removing dust each day that will return tomorrow. Her idea of "clean" and the rich family's idea are different. Use such a story as a basis for role playing. Each person can explain his or her point of view to the others, then all can look for some solution to the job dilemma. Visual perceptions will also reflect cultural conditioning. Ina Corinne Brown, in *Understanding Other Cultures* (Prentice-Hall, 1963), tells about a woman in an African society who was shown a picture of the Empire State Building and said, "What a lovely garden." There was nothing in her cultural background that enabled her to conceive of height or perspective. The class will find such anecdotes humorous. To illustrate that they are subject to the same conditioning, go through some back issues of *Scientific American* looking for some of the more imaginative photographs (such as aerial views, close-ups, or microphoto pictures of familiar objects). Ask the students to describe what they see. Some of their answers are likely to parallel the Empire State Building story.

D. Invite an attorney or judge to talk to your class about what makes a good witness in a trial. Ask for anecdotes about poor and good witnesses the attorney has dealt with. Discuss common mistakes witnesses make.

You may want to prepare for this visit by reading some detective stories in class. Students can ask the expert about the likelihood of incidents in the stories, validity of evidence, etc.

TOPIC 7: LEARNING FROM LABELS

Packages and labels are a big part of our lives as Americans, and children should become aware of how those labels communicate. A cross-cultural or historical perspective will aid students' critical sense and help develop their *capacity to acquire and process information.*

AREAS OF STUDY

Consumer Education

Social Studies (culture studies; U.S. history)

Language Arts (observing, recording information, analyzing evidence)

Art (advertising design)

OBJECTIVES

Students will

1. describe possible reasons for kinds of packaging and labeling;

2. compare certain American packages to those with similar functions in another culture or historical period;

3. give examples of what one can learn about a people through their packaging;

4. demonstrate their understanding of how packaging works and appeals to buyers by designing their own.

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS

A. Ask students to bring in a variety of empty packagings, such as gum wrappers, cans, cereal boxes, paper bags, etc. "Analyze" a few as a class to get at why these packagings are used. You might use this as a way to introduce the idea of using evidence to form hypotheses or educated guesses; e.g. what could a future historian tell about our culture if these were the only evidence available? For analyzing detail, you might ask these questions:

   1. Who does this package appeal to? How do we know? (Look at color, pictures, printing, size, etc.)

   2. Does the label tell everything a possible buyer would want to know about the product? Why or why not?

   3. What would be the simplest or least possible packaging for this product? How is the package you have different from that? Why?

   Ask each student to write a brief statement about the nature of his or her package and why it is the way it is.

B. Investigate packaging in another country or historical period you may be studying. Publications (magazines, newspapers) from other countries would be most helpful for this. Possible sources: library; newsstand or bookstore featuring foreign periodicals; consulates of particular countries. If convenient, narrow the study down to containers for liquids or for grains exchanged in the market. What are the modern American equivalents? What does a comparison suggest about the importance of packaging in each culture, and what people want to know or see when they buy? Note especially the difference that *technology* can make in the buyer-seller exchange. Ask: Why should elaborate packaging be more important in our society than in, say, a pioneer town 150 years ago?

C. Go through old magazines for prominent pictures of products being advertised. Have the class cut them out and make a collage. Then ask students to pretend they are foreigners trying to learn about Americans. Tell or write a composite portrait of the American buyer using only information from the products and their labels. Is the portrait completely true? Ask the children how well they think they could judge people in another country by the products advertised there.

D. Have students invent appropriate packages for favorite foods or products. This can be a fanciful exercise, but it should also be practical. Require everyone to give reasons for package size, labeling information, color, special effects, etc. Package plans can then be exchanged for "consumer" critiques.

TOPIC 8: MAKING PEACE

As your class encounters wars and other types of conflicts, past and present, they will become aware that there are alternative ways of resolving important differences - compromise, mediation, arbitration, finding new goals, withdrawing. If you spend some time focusing on the kind of communication that goes on (verbal and nonverbal), students will gain important experience in *making more accurate and sophisticated judgments about the peoples, institutions, and social processes which constitute the world system.*

AREAS OF STUDY

Language Arts (ways of communicating; literature)

Social Studies (U.S. history; culture studies)

OBJECTIVES

Students will

1. demonstrate better understanding of conflicting viewpoints through role playing particular conflict situations;

2. give examples of how the setting can contribute to resolving a conflict;

3. compare cultural differences in negotiating, specifically in word choices, gestures, ritual, silence.

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS

A. Select conflict situations where the method of resolving differences is gone into in some detail. These may occur in stories, novels, plays, history, and culture studies. If actual words and actions are described, have students re-enact the situation. Have the rest of the class note particularly how words were interpreted; what messages seemed to be created by pauses or long silences; how gestures were used.

   If little detail is given and outside research isn't possible, students can role play the situation the way they think it might have happened.

B. Have students keep journals of how particular conflicts were settled - in what kind of setting, through what kind of communication, what role did nonverbal communication play; was verbal communication used to appeal to the other side - or to public opinion or posterity? Examples: New England Town Meetings; Indian Councils; Indian - White negotiations; settling disputes in other cultures; ending wars.

C. Note how setting can make a difference. Vivid examples can be drawn from films or television dramas. e.g. The guy in debt to the mob meets them in the Big Boss's office - how does this influence his ability to negotiate? The criminal meets the detective on the criminal's own ground - how is this different from a confrontation in a police station?

   Draw comparisons from students' personal experiences. If you've had an argument with a friend and want to improve the situation, are there certain settings that just don't help - such as trying to talk it out in a crowd, like the cafeteria line. What would be a good setting for settling differences between friends?

D. Interpretation of language can make a difference. This is particularly noticeable where languages differ, but also in interpretation of words. A striking series of cases for illustrating this is in the long history of settlers' land-grabbing from Native Americans. How did the two sides differ over their ideas of words like land and land ownership? How did this lead to unfair settlements?

TOPIC 9: BUILDINGS SPEAK TO US

Like most adults, students tend to pay little attention to the wonders and unique features of their "built" environment. Some planned walks in the neighborhood of the school - or trips farther afield — can help sharpen awareness and contribute to *the capacity to acquire and process information analytically when making judgments about world problems.*

AREAS OF STUDY

Art (architecture; drawing)

Environmental Studies (built environment)

Language Arts (noting detail; reporting information and impressions)

Social Studies (culture studies; world and U.S. history)

OBJECTIVES

Students will

1. demonstrate increased awareness of details in their immediate surrounding;

2. give examples of striking features observed in the built environment;

3. describe their feelings about particular forms of architecture;

4. design or draw a building they find visually attractive;

5. recognize that people in different cultures and different historical periods have expressed ideas through buildings.

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS

This topic builds on the observation by historian Vincent Scully that urban architecture represents "communication across generations over time." There is enough in this topic to keep a class active for a semester; much depends on how far you want to go with it, how it fits into your teaching schedule, what your community (or the nearest urban center) offers. Here are some brief descriptions of things to try:

A. Neighborhood walks. Sometimes a block or a neighborhood is more important than any single building. When you walk down a street, what attracts attention? What kind of variety strikes the students - ornamental railings, windows, doorways, contrasts between buildings, etc.? Encourage each student to record his or her own impressions. Discuss different observations in class.

Compare a downtown shopping area with a suburban plaza. In what ways is the former built for walkers? What appeal does it make to the shopper?

B. With students help, and old magazines, make a mural of different kinds of architecture in the U.S. Point out evidence of influence from other cultures - Spanish adobe, English Tudor, Greek revival.

Notice what the buildings are trying to say. Do they try to fit into the landscape (like Sea Ranch in Northern California) or do they demonstrate human power over nature (skyscrapers)?

C. Relate an urban field trip to your city's history - and how that history fits into national and world events. An architect, city planner, or local historian would be a valuable resource person for this. Help the class look for details - decorations (e.g. Victorian gingerbread), building materials, other buildings nearby, etc. With a couple of students taking pictures, you can create your own slide show of the community's history.

Study older pictures of the community. Why did church steeples rise above other buildings (as they still do in small towns). What is the building trying to say? You might compare these to cathedrals in Europe and great temples of other cultures, past and present.

D. Visit public buildings, from oldest to most modern. Observe first from the outside and then go in. Is the building designed to fit in with others or to stand out? How do you feel when you step inside - what is the building saying?

E. Much of this study can lead students to think about how they want their surroundings to look and feel. They can talk about things they found ugly - other things that made them feel good.

Encourage interested groups of students to design their own buildings or table-top neighborhoods. This can be done with commercial materials like plastic "lego" blocks, or students may prefer to draw.

RESOURCES

An excellent source for this age level, with dozens of activities, is David Weitzman's *My Backyard History*, Little, Brown & Co., 1974.

OTHER COMMUNICATION TOPICS TO EXPLORE

1. ART

How does art communicate to us? Explore different kinds of messages and how they are presented.

In the study of any culture of any historical period, view and analyze the ideas and feelings expressed through art.

Notice the fun or sense of humor involved in much art. The work of the late Alexander Calder is especially good for this and most appealing to youth of all ages.

2. MUSIC

The ways in which music communicates is often too complex for this age level. But students in grades 4-6 can gain feelings of different moods.

Students enjoy the activity of drawing or writing their feelings when they listen to music.

Folk music, especially with words included, is a valuable way to understand the lives of people in other cultures or in earlier historical periods.

3. DRAMA

As an activity, drama opens up worlds of possibilities for students to sense or feel other people's viewpoints. Improvised drama or prepared plays are excellent opportunities to develop awareness of how communication works.

4. DANCE

Like drama, music, and art, dance is an important vehicle for understanding, and developing empathy for other peoples. Again, active participation is best. A class can view a film of folk dances in another culture; what the dance communicates will come through more clearly if they try the movements themselves.

BOOK II: PATTERNS FOR TEACHING COMMUNICATION

INTRODUCTORY NOTE

Like the outlines of topics in Part I, this in only a sampling - a few self-contained lesson activities for strengthening the students' grasp of the concept of communication. We hope you will find some to be valuable additions to your curriculum, and others giving you ideas for amplifying lessons you are already teaching.

The lessons can be even more useful when allied with others which focus on the concepts of interdependence, conflict and change. As students gain the ability to use these concepts for organizing information and experience, they are better equipped to achieve the kinds of understandings and awarenesses needed in a global age.

LESSON 1: WHAT'S IN A WORD ... OR A PHRASE?

By John Boeschen

This series of activities involves students in exploring our language from a number of perspectives - the origins of words and place names; changes in the use of words; regional and ethnic dialects; slang; accents; formal or standard English. In addition to serving the goal of increasing understanding of language, the activities help develop *the ability to recognize the contributions of different groups to "the global bank of human culture."*

AREAS OF STUDY

Language Arts (grammar, vocabulary, word usage, writing, literature)

Social Studies (U.S. history)

Music (folksongs)

SUGGESTED TIME 4-6 class periods

OBJECTIVES

Students will

1. demonstrate increased awareness of word and place names origins by researching those origins in dictionaries;

2. recognize differences in samples of regional or ethnic dialects through poetry, folk songs, and literature;

3. give examples of the value and the misuses of dialects and slang;

4. identify some differences in regional accents;

5. demonstrate appreciation for the contributions of groups and regions to the richness of our language by translating passages into standard English;

6. recognize the importance of standard English.

MATERIALS NEEDED

dictionaries

ACTIVITY ONE

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS

Language, like a living organism, grows and develops with time. The richness and diversity in any language comes from assimilating words from other cultures and creating new terms to describe new phenomena.

The earliest Americanisms were probably borrowed from the Indians. These words have no counterparts in the English language. Of the many Indian languages once spoken on this continent, the only words that remain in common usage (besides names), are those which the early English settlers used for unfamiliar plants, animals, and aspects of Indian life.

In 1608, for example, Captain John Smith described a strange beast he saw as a "rhaugcum." Later he called it a "raugroughcum." In 1672, the Indian word has been modified into "raccoon".

Exploration 1: The dictionary work should be carried out in a spirit of fun and discovery. You may even want to turn it into small group competition.

Ask the students to give examples of Indian words they are familiar with. These will probably include: squaw, moccasin, teepee, and totem. Other words of Indian derivation are:

raccoon	chipmunk
moose	powwow
succotash	pecan
opossum	hickory
papoose	

Have the students find the definitions of these words in their dictionaries. As an optional research project for the class or several interested students, assign them the task of "tracking-down" the original Indian meanings. The school librarian can direct the students to more extensive sources.

Extend the activity by having students look at maps of North American, your state, and your community. What states, bodies of water, cities, and streets in your town bear Indian names? Have the class find out what these Indian words or names mean. Lake Tenya, for example, is named after an Indian Chieftan. Do the same with other geographical places which have names which are derived from other cultures (i.e. Baton Rouge, Florida, Hawaii, etc.). The enclosed list of the origins of the names of the 50 states should be helpful. Following each state name is the date of its admission into the Union.

Exploration 2: Words are constantly changing. What a word popularly meant one day may be totally different now. For example, the word "compact" once referred to a lady's powder case; today it generally refers to a small car. Ask your students to find the definitions of the following words, how they were once used and how they are used today.

missile	satellite
plastic	maverick
twist	bulb

The connotative meaning as well as the denotative one should be taken into account in this exercise.

ACTIVITY TWO

This activity should help students make a distinction between formal and informal communication. Informal English is used when we talk in a small group. It is often referred to as conversational English and is used in a very personal, relaxed way. Formal English, on the other hand, is used in speaking before a large group. It is also used for any serious writing: a letter to a government office, a class report, or a letter-to-the-editor. It is also the language of business. Many people have been turned down on job applications because they did not know formal English. The students can discuss why this happens and whether or not they think it's fair.

Read the following quotation to the class. This colorful and humorous introduction was part of a speech by Davy Crockett to the House of Representatives.

> Mr. Speaker: I've had a speech in soak these six months, and it has swelled me like a drowned horse. If I don't deliver it, I shall burst and smash the windows. The gentleman from Massachusetts talks of summing up the merits of the question,

but I'll sum up my own. In one word, I'm a screamer, I've got the roughest rocking horse, the prettiest sister, the surest rifle, and the ugliest dog in the district. I'm a little the savagest critter you ever did see. My father can whip any man in Kentucky, and I can lick my father. I can outspeak any man on this floor, and give him two hours start. I can run faster, dive deeper, stay longer under, and come out drier than any chap this side of the Big Swamp. I can outlook a panther and outstare a flash of lightning, tote a steamboat on my back and play at rough and tumble with a lion, and I can take an occasional kick from a zebra. To sum up all in one word, I'm a horse. I can walk like an ox, run like a fox, swim like an eel, yell like an Indian, fight like a devil, and sprout like an earthquake.

After reading the above, ask your students what kind of person they think Crockett was, based on the language he used. How would they have reacted if they were in the House of Representatives when this speech was delivered? Could they understand everything Crockett was saying?

The words and phrases underlined are probably unfamiliar to your students. Write these on the blackboard or pass out mimeographed copies of the terms. Have the students look up the words which are new to them in the dictionary, (i.e. critter, tote, sprout). Take the colorful metaphorical phrases used by Crockett and have the class brainstorm on what they really mean. How would one re-word them in standard English? For example, "I can swim like an eel" translated into ordinary English means "I'm a good and fast swimmer." Try substituting standard English for the informal words and phrases used in the quote. How does that change the tone and character of the speech? Ask the students which they prefer, and why.

Exploration 1:

a. Colorful expressions and slang give our language character and richness; however, they can also confuse the listener or reader. Standard English is needed for clarity. To illustrate this point, have your students write and act out brief scenarios using informal language (i.e. slang or a local dialect) for talking to a foreign visitor; for interviewing an important statesman; or for telephoning a government office for information. Act these out and discuss the problems of misinterpretation and comprehension. Rewrite the scenarios using standard English.

b. Introduce the terms "literal" and "figurative" speech to the students. A "literal" meaning of a word or phrase is the definition found in the dictionary. "Figurative" phrases are often found in slang, and can have totally different meanings from that found in standard English. Students will enjoy compiling a book of slang words and colloquial phrases accompanied with humorous drawings which illustrate the *literal* meaning rather than the figurative one. For example, the

phrase "I'm going to *split.*" really means "I'm going to leave." Your students should have fun with this activity as well as recognize how the standard usage of English is important to good communication.

c. Different regions in America have produced their own colorful expressions. Some of the more imaginative ones come from the Ozark region of Arkansas, Oklahoma, and Missouri. Here are some examples:

He looked like the hindquarters of bad luck.

Her tongue was always a-waggin' like the south end of a goose.

I'd just as soon shin up a thorn tree with an armload of eels.

That man is so contrary that if you throwed him in a river, he'd float upstream.

He walks like he was belly-deep in cold water.

(More examples can be found in: *American English Today: Exploring English,* The McGraw-Hill Language Arts Program, 1974.)

Let your students figure out what these country sayings mean, and then write their own. The more humorous and interesting the images the better the expressions will be. Emphasize the point, however, that the meaning or intent of the saying should be obvious.

d. Follow up the previous activity by introducing the subject of dialects in the English language. A dialect is the way people within a particular cultural group or from a certain region of the country speak. Explore some regional dialects with the children by reading poetry, stories and singing folk songs from the South, New England, and other regions of the U.S. Listen to recordings of poets, such as Langston Hughes or Robert Frost reading their own poetry. Compare their accents, the speech rhythms, and the choice of words used in their works. A collection of folk songs will serve the same purpose.

Discuss with the class how accents, dialects, and speech rhythms add to what a poet or writer - or film director - is trying to say (e.g. trying to give a regional or ethnic flavor). You might have students rewrite some dialect pieces and notice the loss of color and liveliness.

ORIGINS OF THE STATES' NAMES

1. ALABAMA (Dec. 14, 1819): Named for a river which in turn was named for an Indian tribe originally called the Alabamas or Alibamons of the Creek confederacy.

2. ALASKA (Jan. 3, 1959): From an Aleut word thought to mean the mainland or land that is not an island, a distinction made by people who were islanders. The name was spelled in various ways by the Russians and English, and although originally applied to what is now the Alaska Peninsula, the name was identified with all of Russian America when purchased by the United States in 1867.

3. ARIZONA (Feb. 14, 1912): Indian name reputed to mean "place of the small spring," first spelled Arizonac and then changed to a more Spanish-sounding word. The place became well known for rich finds of silver ore, and the name spread north to the surrounding country, and was eventually adopted as the name of a Territory.

4. ARKANSAS (June 15, 1836): From the name of a river named for an Indian village and tribe. The French recorded the tribal name as "Arkansa" about 1673, and the "s" was added as a plural. The French pronunciation and spelling still prevail, although the act establishing the Territory originally spelled the name "Arkansaw."

5. CALIFORNIA (Sept. 9, 1850): Hernando Cortez first applied the name in the 1500's to the southern tip of Baja California, and explorers extended the name northward to the present area of the State. The name's origin is traced to that of an imaginary island in a Spanish romance written by Montalvo about 1510.

6. COLORADO (Aug. 1, 1876): Name chosen by Congress out of many proposed when the Territory was formed in 1861; probably named for the Colorado River, which was wrongly assumed to head in the Territory. In 1921, Congress changed the name of the Grand River, a tributary of the Colorado, so that part of the Colorado River would flow through the State. The name is Spanish, meaning "colored" or "reddish," descriptively applied to the Little Colorado in Arizona in 1602.

7. CONNECTICUT (Jan. 9, 1788): For the river, which had an Algonkian Indian name originally recorded with many spellings, and interpreted to mean "place of the long stream." Early settlement was along the Connecticut River, which became the reference name for the colony.

8. DELAWARE (Dec. 7, 1787): In 1610, Samuel Argoll discovered a cape near the entrance of a large bay and named it after Thomas West, Lord de la Warr, first colonial governor of Virginia. The name soon was written Delaware and was transferred to a bay and river, and later the colony of settlements west of the bay.

9. FLORIDA (Mar. 3, 1845): An early Spanish historian wrote that Ponce de Leon gave this name to the newly discovered land in 1513 for two reasons: the coast was green and flowery, "florida," and it was Easter week, "Pascua Florida." The name endured for the peninsula, Spanish colony, and a U.S. Territory in 1822.

10. GEORGIA (Jan. 2, 1788): The colony was referred to in the royal charter of 1732 as "The Colony of Georgia in America," taking the name of George II (with a Latin ending), then King of England.

11. HAWAII (Aug. 21, 1959): Polynesian word or name applied to the largest of the islands and extended to the whole archipelago during the 19th century. Its meaning is unknown. The English explorer Captain James Cook named them the Sandwich Islands for the first lord of the admiralty, the Earl of Sandwich.

12. IDAHO (July 3, 1890): Indian name of unknown meaning although some think it may have come from a Kiowa Apache name for the Comanche. The name became popular in its anglicized form during the 1850's and was originally proposed in Congress for the Territory that became Colorado. In 1861, the name was given to a county in the Washington Territory, which became part of a new Territory that Congress originally intended to name Montana but eventually named Idaho.

13. ILLINOIS (Dec. 3, 1818): From the name of a confederacy of several Indian tribes, recorded by the French with a plural ending. The original Indian word meant "the men." The name was transferred to a river and the Territory.

14. INDIANA (Dec. 11, 1816): Coined name for a tract of land in Pennsylvania developed by the Indiana Company and ceded by Indians in 1768. The name, suggesting Indians, became popular and was given to the Territory.

15. IOWA (Dec. 28, 1846): The Territory was named for the river, which in turn bore the name of an Indian tribe recorded by French explorers in the late 1600's with several spellings.

16. KANSAS (Jan. 29, 1861): Name of a Sioux Indian tribe spelled various ways by Spanish and French explorers in the 1600's. The name was transferred to a river, also called the Kaw and was adopted for the Territory.

17. KENTUCKY (June 1, 1792): From an Indian word or name applied to the river and eventually transferred to a county when the area was part of Virginia in the 18th century. The name may be from an Iroquoian word meaning "meadow land."

18. LOUISIANA (Apr. 30, 1812): The Mississippi River was explored by Sieur de la Salle, who in 1681 named the western lands drained by the river "Louisiane" for Louis XIV, as part of taking possession for the French crown. The Spanish spelled the name "Luisiana," and later Americans combined both spellings. Application of the name was eventually reduced to the present State at the mouth of the Mississippi.

19. MAINE (Mar. 15, 1820): From a descriptive word referring to the mainland, in distinction to the many islands along the coast. The name became popular for the area and was used for the name of the new State formed from a district of Massachusetts by the Missouri Compromise.

20. MARYLAND (Apr. 28, 1788): The colony had been named in the early 17th century for Henrietta Maria, Queen of Charles I, probably by the King himself.

21. MASSACHUSETTS (Feb. 6, 1788): Named for the Massachusetts Bay Colony. The name probably is Algonquian, meaning "place of big hills," and was originally the name of a village near Boston recorded in 1616. The name was transferred to the bay and colony.

22. MICHIGAN (Jan. 26, 1837): Named for Lake Michigan, descriptively called "big lake" by the Algonquian Indians. The name was first recorded early in the 17th century as that of an Indian tribe living near Lake Michigan.

23. MINNESOTA (May 11, 1858): A Siouan Indian descriptive name meaning "cloudy water" and applied to the Minnesota River. The French and English name for the river was St. Pierre or St. Peter, but in 1852, Congress restored the Indian name for the stream at the request of the territorial legislature.

24. MISSISSIPPI (Dec. 10, 1817): Descriptive Algonquian Indian word meaning "big river" recorded by French explorers in 1666 as "Messipi." The name for the river was also used for the Territory. Congress also considered "Washington" for the State name.

25. MISSOURI (Aug. 10, 1821): Algonquian Indian name for a tribe living near the mouth of the Missouri River. French explorers recorded the name in 1673 and applied it to the river. The name passed on to the Territory.

26. MONTANA (Nov. 8, 1889): A Spanish or Latin-sounding name suggesting mountains which became popular after a Colorado mining town used it in 1858. The name was originally proposed in Congress for the Territory that became Idaho. Congress then applied the name to the Montana Territory in 1864.

27. NEBRASKA (Mar. 1, 1867): Siouan Indian name meaning "flat or broad water" and applied to the river now called Platte with the same meaning in French. In 1844, the explorer J. C. Fremont suggested the Indian name as suitable for a future Territory.

28. NEVADA (Oct. 31, 1864): The Territory was named by Congress for the Sierra Nevada, meaning "snow-covered mountains" and shortened to Nevada, "snow-covered."

29. NEW HAMPSHIRE (June 21, 1788): In 1629, Captain John Mason received land rights over a large area of New England, and named it for his home county in England.

30. NEW JERSEY (Dec. 18, 1787): Named by the proprietors of the colony in 1664 for the English island of Jersey off the coast of France. One of the proprietors was from Jersey.

31. NEW MEXICO (Jan. 6, 1912): For differentiation, the region north of "Known" Mexico was called "Nuevo" Mexico by Spanish explorer Don Francisco de Ibarra in 1562. The name spread northward, and after the region became part of the United States in 1848, the partly translated Spanish name was given to the Territory.

32. NEW YORK (July 26, 1788): Named in honor of the Duke of York and the city and county of York in England in the 1660's by Colonel Richard Nicolls, who took possession of the colony from the Dutch. The Duke, brother of Charles II, was entrusted with the colony.

33. NORTH CAROLINA (Nov. 21, 1789): Part of an area originally called Carolana in 1629 to honor Charles I, who provided the royal grant for the colony. In 1663, Charles II regranted the colony, using the spelling "Carolina" with the possible intention that the naming honor applied to him as well as to his father. The distinction between North and South Carolina began informally and became official in 1710.

34. NORTH DAKOTA (Nov. 2, 1889): The anglicized spelling "Dakota" is from the name of a Sioux Indian tribe and was adopted as the name of a Territory in 1861. When the Territory was to be divided into two States, the people of both areas wanted to keep the popular name "Dakota." The result was the compromise on North and South Dakota.

35. OHIO (Feb. 19, 1803): Iroquoian Indian name meaning "fine or good river," applied to the Ohio River. The river gave its name to the region and finally the Territory in 1799.

36. OKLAHOMA (Nov. 16, 1907): Coined name meaning "red people," proposed by a Choctaw Indian chief to refer to land held by his tribe and adopted in the Choctaw-Chickasaw treaty of 1866. The name became popular and was adopted for the Territory in 1890.

37. OREGON (Feb. 14, 1859): Origin of the name is uncertain although there are several good theories. One is that the name may have been derived from that of the Wisconsin River shown on a 1715 French map as "Ouaricon-sint." Regardless of origin, the name Oregon became fixed on the area in the Northwestern States and to a Territory in 1848.

38. PENNSYLVANIA (Dec. 12, 1787): The most accepted story is that when William Penn was obtaining the royal grant for the colony in 1681, Charles II coined the name from Penn and silva or sylva (Latin "forest"). With modesty, Penn said later that the name was in honor of his father.

39. RHODE ISLAND (May 29, 1790): Exact origin is unknown. In 1524, explorer Giovanni de Verrazano recorded an island in the area about the size of Rhodes in the Mediterranean. By 1630 the Dutch were referring to a "red" or rood (rode) island here. In 1664, the court of Providence Plantation ordered that the island in Narragansett Bay called Aquethneck will hereafter be called the Isle of Rhodes or Rhode Island.

40. SOUTH CAROLINA (May 23, 1788): (See North Carolina.)

41. SOUTH DAKOTA (Nov. 2, 1889): (See North Dakota.)

42. TENNESSEE (June 1, 1796): Named for the river; originally the name of a Cherokee village recorded as Tanasqui in 1567 in Spanish and as Tinnase in English in 1707.

43. TEXAS (Dec. 29, 1845): Spanish explorers thought the name Tejas, which they recorded in 1541, was the name of an Indian tribe. The word, meaning "friends," persisted and became the official name for the lands east of New Mexico. Spelled Texas, the name was used for the new independent republic in 1836.

44. UTAH (Jan. 4, 1896): From the name of an Indian tribe commonly spelled Ute, but earlier Uta and Utah. The latter spelling was applied to a river now called Jordan. When the region was being organized into a Territory, the Mormons preferred their own name, Deseret, but Congress adopted the river name with the then popular Utah spelling.

45. VERMONT (Mar. 4, 1791): Probably a coined name, an easily pronounced combination of clipped French words that imply "green mountains." The earlier name for the region was New Connecticut.

46. VIRGINIA (June 26, 1788): The colony was probably named in 1584 by Elizabeth I of England. The name commemorates the Queen herself, being a designation for her unmarried and presumably chaste state. Her choice may also have been suggested by the Indian name shown as Wingina on the map of the area of the planned colony.

47. WASHINGTON (Nov. 11, 1889): The Territory was named by an act of Congress in 1853 for George Washington. The original name in the bill was Columbia but was changed because no Territory or State was named for the first president.

48. WEST VIRGINIA (June 19, 1863): Descriptively named because the State was formed out of the western counties of Virginia whose citizens rejected secession during the Civil War.

49. WISCONSIN (May 29, 1848): The Territory was named for the river; probably in a French version of an Algonquian Indian name recorded 1673 as Mesconsing. The name was spelled Ouisconsing by the French and later anglicized. The meaning is uncertain.

50. WYOMING (July 10, 1890): An anglicized version of an Algonquian Indian name applied to a valley in Pennsylvania. The name was popularized in an 1809 poem and chosen by Congress when the Territory was organized in 1868. Its original Indian meaning may have been "place of the big valleys or flats."

LESSON 2: SOUND EFFECTS

By Peter Stillman

The purpose of the lesson is to develop an increased understanding of the role of nonverbal sound in enhancing communication - or hindering it. Students will be asked to organize a series of nonverbal sounds to symbolize activities, moods, and feelings. Their results should, theoretically, convey the same story to nearly anyone in the world. The experience will increase awareness of ways we communicate and will suggest that these universally recognized sounds represent *one way in which we are linked to people in other parts of the world.*

AREAS OF STUDY

Language Arts (nonverbal communication, dramatics, writing scenarios)

Social Studies (sociological concepts)

Media (use of cassette recorder, sound effects)

Drama (creative imagination, scenarios)

OBJECTIVES

Students will

1. demonstrate increased awareness of the importance of nonverbal communication;

2. practice basic skills in organizing and interpreting information;

3. recognize that there are common ways of reaching beyond language to communicate.

SUGGESTED TIME 3-4 class periods

MATERIALS NEEDED cassette recorder (preferably more than one)

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS

This small unit is fun, and that aspect of it probably should be given fairly free rein. Most children have a flair for the dramatic. This will provide a good outlet for it.

The children will be asked to develop a very simple story. You, as script advisor (or technical consultant), can be of help. We suggest that not all students devise a story on their own. This will take too much class time, to no particular advantage. Instead, let the class work in four or five groups, after your brief initial discussion.

Although children love to create stories, they'll be stymied at first by this assignment. The catch to this unit is that they must plan the stories so that they can be understood by nearly any audience anywhere in the world. They are to do this by reducing each story to simple sound effects which they will record on tape. This sounds tough, but young students can do it.

The stories can amount to no more than a very brief sequence of events; e.g., a child breaks a dish (CRASH!), gets spanked (WHACK, WHACK!), cries, get teased by his sister (NYAH, NYAH), kicks the dog (YIP, YIP), runs out of the house (footsteps and slamming), which breaks another dish (CRASH!).

If that is too complicated, settle for something simpler: Someone attempts to take a shower. First, the water is too hot (OW! -nearly nonverbal), then, too cold (BRRR), then perfect (UMMM), etc.

No special materials are needed for the sound effects. Random materials found at home or in the room will almost surely suffice. If not, the larger resources of your school will provide ample material. Part of the fun and value of this experience lies in the ingenuity required. Your suggestions will be vital here, of course.

ACTIVITY ONE

One interesting way to get this unit going is to ask your students to agree to listen, blindfolded, to at least part of a favorite TV program. Ask them to note as many sound effects as possible. A sound effect can be defined simply as a noise or sound that contains no real speech but that is part of the story: a door slamming, tires squealing, wind howling, etc. (Background music may be included but is not, strictly speaking, a sound effect.)

Next day, discuss what students came up with. You might list on the board some of the more common ones. Find out how students feel about the value and function of these sounds; and also whether *listening* to TV instead of watching had any special effect on them. (They'll almost certainly observe that they were surprised at the number and variety of sounds.)

Next, ask if any of these sounds would be recognized by someone living in Japan, Russia, China, or in any country in Africa.

Would it be possible, do the children think, to tell a simple message or story to someone in one of these places, using only sounds as opposed to words?

Let them mull that overnight. Ask that they be prepared by the next day to jot down some possible messages or stories that might be conveyed this way, along with suggested sound effects.

ACTIVITY TWO

The next day, have the students group themselves. Advise them not to discuss possible story ideas with children outside their own group. With your help as visiting consultant, urge each group to pick the best message or simple story, from the standpoint of its being reduceable to sound effects. Then let the sound effects experts devise a nonverbal scenario, complete with suggested ways to produce the required sounds. Tell them to experiment at home overnight to produce desired sounds. They may bring in any required equipment next day (unless they have their own cassette players and are able to bring in the sounds as tape for re-recording).

ACTIVITY THREE

Each group should be more or less ready to produce its chosen message or story. The problem lies in finding a suitable place to do the recording. Since the element of secrecy will add to student's motivation, you cannot simply use the classroom, unless other students are excused. Furthermore, the surroundings should be reasonably quiet. Your school's facilities and your own inventiveness will provide a solution.

Students will surely make mistakes, get silly, fail to provide the desired results at first. This is to be expected. Usually, however, after a few false starts, they get organized, edit and improve, and finally produce a good piece of work.

The final step, of course, is to have each group play its production to the rest of the class. Ask in advance that the class listen intently and then jot down their interpretations of what they have heard. This is raw material for some very worthwhile discussion, and should lead to some broad observations about how sounds can, even if only to a limited extent, communicate mood, tone, and action where words would not work as well.

LESSON 3: HOT FOOT

By Peter Stillman

Although the setting is quite different, this activity engages the class in further exploration of the world of nonverbal communication. This time they will have to organize and cooperate to solve a problem - without verbal communication. Again, the experience will help develop awareness of some of the ways we are linked to people of different cultures and languages.

AREAS OF STUDY

All subjects (interdependence, problem-solving)

Language Arts (nonverbal communication techniques)

Drama (body movement, gestures)

SUGGESTED TIME 1-2 class periods

OBJECTIVES

Students will

1. on the basis of a simulated experience, form generalizations about the need for organizing a group response to a common problem;
2. recognize that one may have to rely on others - regardless of nationality or origin - in order to solve a problem;
3. describe how nonverbal communication can help in contact with people who speak a different language.

MATERIALS NEEDED

Three or four milk cases. These are usually available on a short-term loan basis from the cafeteria. (You're familiar with the objects we're talking about. They are hard plastic boxes about 15 inches square and a foot deep. They're used for delivering milk and usually bear the name of a dairy.)

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS

This is an immensely enjoyable activity. Keep it short, tightly organized, to the point. Beneath the surface of this seemingly simple game are implications as important as you wish to make them. You and the students will see in miniature scale a struggle for survival which hinges on the willingness and ability to consider the equal importance of others. You will also witness young people, in a problem-solving situation involving a strong element of conflict, elect a *system* for solving it and communicate that system in a universal language. We suggest that you do absolutely nothing to aid students during this experience.

ACTIVITY ONE

The setting for this scenario is a small island, far from any continent, perhaps 2 miles across and flat, except for a towering volcanic peak in the center. There are five people on the island. They are complete strangers, having been dropped by helicopter only hours before as members of an international scientific team studying volcanoes. They will receive provisions and equipment via helicopter in 10 hours. Now they have nothing, except box lunches, packed in a milk crate.

Strangely enough, no member of the expedition can speak the language of any other member. (The organizer of the expedition arranged it this way. He is as curious about how people can communicate without a common language as he is about volcanoes.) There are a Chinese, a Norwegian, a Syrian, an American, and a Filipino. All are expert geologists, specializing in volcanoes.

One of the members wanders off to scale the volcanic slope. When he reaches the peak and investigates, to his horror, he realized that the volcano is about to erupt. At most, it will be two hours before boiling hot lava will cover the island to a depth of at least 6 to 8 inches. It will take him an hour and 45 minutes to run back and warn the others.

How will he tell them? How will they survive? None can swim, and the shore drops off immediately to great depth. Perhaps if they could climb upon something while the lava flowed beneath their feet. But the island is absolutely flat. There is nothing to stand on, nothing but ... a milk crate? Ridiculous. Five people can't stand on one milk crate. Still, it is all they have, and it is worth a try.

(They can stand on the crate, all five of them. They'll have to climb on very carefully, arranging themselves more or less concentrically, and hold one another for mutual support. It isn't easy, but it doesn't require acrobats.)

Problems to be solved:

How does the one with the message convey it to the group?

Will they understand him/her? Believe the message?

How will they organize their escape from the lava? Will they all make it? Can the information and planning be conveyed and organized in 15 minutes or less?

The teacher's role here is to tell the students that they are going to play an interesting little game, and have the class split into groups of five, one group for each available crate. The "game" element is based on which team succeeds, within the 15-minute limit, in avoiding a cosmic hotfoot.

Space the crates well apart in a cleared area. Then select from each group a wandering geologist. Tell these students what they have discovered about the volcano, and remind them that they may not use words to convey their finding to their teams. Group the remaining teams of four near their crates and explain only the setting, the language barrier, the presence of the crate, and their inability to swim. You might, if you deem it wise, also advise them that if they understand and believe the message that the wandering geologist has, they will have only 15 minutes, less the time it takes to grasp the message, to act. No talking is allowed.

Keep an eye on the clock, allow for some silliness, call out the time at 3 or 4 minutes intervals, and watch what happens.

ACTIVITY TWO

This is essentially a debriefing, meant to provide an opportunity for evaluating and generalizing about the experience. We will not belabor the obvious implications of the game. Did the children sense that they had to organize to reach a solution; that they were forced to consider and rely upon others; that they, out of necessity, successfully communicated without using their native language? Fine. The unit worked.

LESSON 4: MISSING THE POINT

Part of understanding communication is understanding failure in communication and their consequences. Common barriers to the clear sending and clear receiving of messages are: misinterpretation, prejudice, ethnocentrism, and cultural differences. In this series of activities, the class will encounter some of these barriers and explore the consequences. The experience, especially if amplified and reinforced in later grades, will help develop the capacity to view the world with less ethnocentric bias.

AREAS OF STUDY

Language Arts (clear communication)

Social Studies (culture studies, ethnocentrism)

Media (analyzing plots)

SUGGESTED TIME 2-3 class periods

OBJECTIVES

Students will

1. give examples of reasons for miscommunication and hypothesize about the consequences;

2. find examples of miscommunication in television comedies;

3. recognize that judgments of other cultures is often based on misunderstanding messages;

4. understand the importance of viewing other cultures without judging forms of behavior that seem strange.

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS

This series of activities can be undertaken at any time, but it is probably most valuable when used in connection with the study of other cultures. After the class has learned about at least one other culture, talk about what seemed strange or odd in their ways of living, and then proceed with these episodes.

ACTIVITY ONE: THE GAME OF RUMOR

This is an excellent way to develop awareness of how easily messages are distorted - either in the sending or the receiving. If you're not familiar with the game, it works like this:

Bring one student to the front of the class, after instructing the rest of the class that each is to pass on a message as clearly and accurately as possible, without leaving out any details. Whisper the message to the first student. It should be simple but detailed; for example:

> Jack Walsh was a carpenter. He and his friend, Bill Smith, a plumber, had an argument. They always argued over which team was better, the Bears or the Giants. When the Bears beat the Giants 37-6, Jack felt he had won the victory himself.

(Depending on ability levels, you may want to simplify this message or make it more complicated.)

Whisper the message to the first student. He or she then calls someone's name, the person comes to the front of the room, and student 1 whispers the message. Student 2 passes it onto someone else. Allow no talking, no repeating, and no writing. Continue to the last student who then writes down the message as he or she heard it.

Compare the written message with your original version. (It may be useful to have both written on the chalkboard.) Have the class point out errors and distortions. In some cases, you'll find the whole meaning has been lost. You might also want to spend some time seeing if they can locate where particular distortions occurred, to see if they were in the giving or receiving.

Exploring the consequences: Once the class has seen how easily miscommunication occurs, it can begin to consider how this can lead to problems for prople. As as assignment, have the class watch a situation comedy on TV. (The "situation" almost invariably involves a fouled-up message.) Check the TV listings and assign a number of different programs. Their task is to find out what missed messages occurred and how this led to trouble.

The next day ask for reports. There should be plenty of material for discussion and they will recognize the parallels with the game of rumor.

ACTIVITY TWO: Communicating Across Cultures

When studying other cultures, texts will often give examples of misunderstanding, usually based on ethnocentrism - even if the word isn't defined. Outsiders judge people whose behavior seems [illegible] or bizarre. A great deal can be gained by exploring some of these incidents and considering the possible consequences of such misunderstanding. This is also a good way to demonstrate that action or behavior communicates just as speech and "silent language" do.

Here are some brief episodes to use in conjunction with whatever cases you encounter in your text:

1. Jane Smithers was a teacher. Her first job took her to a Navajo (Indian) reservation school in New Mexico. Jane was excited about the job. Being white and also from a northern city, she knew little of Indian ways. But she was eager to learn and to help improve education in the Navajo schools.

   But from the very first day, things went wrong. The children never did well in tests. They were eager to learn and they did their work. But when test time came, she was always disappointed. Ms. Smithers tried everything she could think of. She talked to her best students and urged them to do better. She offered prizes to the person with the highest score.

   Still when the next test came, the same thing happened. It was as though no one wanted to do well. She began to think the Navajo were lazy or didn't care. She had heard that kind of thing a lot. "Indians are lazy," people said. "They don't want to work."

   What was wrong? What kind of judgment was Ms. Smithers making about the Navajo? Was her judgment right?

   One day she talked to one of the parents. She told the man her problem. She said, "Your son could be a good student. But he doesn't try. Would you talk to him and see what the trouble is?"

The father shook his head and smiled. "I don't need to talk to him," he said. "I know what is the trouble." And then he explained: "Among the Navajo it is wrong to try to push ahead of others. Only a showoff would do that. We believe it is more important to help each other. So, if some are not getting good tests, others will not try to beat them in the scores. That would be showing them up.

Questions:

1. What lesson did the teacher learn?

2. What harm could have been done if she had not learned this lesson? (answers will vary)

3. Suppose someone said to you: "I've been to Greece. I know those people. They are loud and rude." Would you believe this judgment? Why or why not? (Students should be able to draw the inference that the person might not have understood the culture.)

2. Harvey Brown was a high school student. As part of a special program, he was sent to Brazil to study for a year. He would be staying with a family named Vargas.

Mr. Vargas met Harvey at the airport. And right away something happened that bothered Harvey. When they talked, Mr. Vargas stood with his face almost touching Harvey's. Harvey took a step backward. It was not very comfortable to be that close and try to talk. But no sooner did Harvey step back than Mr. Vargas stepped forward. They were nose-to-nose again.

If people were watching, they must have thought it was a strange sight. Harvey kept backing up so he could talk to the man. And Mr. Vargas kept edging forward. They went down the whole airport hallway like that, Harvey backing and Mr. Vargas advancing.

Questions

1. How do you suppose Harvey would have described this in a letter to his parents?

2. Do you think he might begin to make false judgments of Mr. Vargas - or all Brazilians?

3. Can you think of some custom that might be common in Brazil that Harvey didn't know about? (The custom, of course, is to stand very close to the person you're speaking with. Many Americans find this unsettling in Latin American countries.)

These examples are adapted from *The Silent Language* by anthropologist Edward T. Hall. The book contains numerous other examples that you could easily write up into episodes for the class to consider. You might deal with Hall's title, too, and ask the students what he means by "the silent language." They should be able to give other examples of how behavior or actions send messages.

Before reading the next episode, you might ask the class what things in our culture might be hard for a foreign visitor to get used to. They will probably have trouble with this because our cultural patterns seem "right" and "natural;" in fact, it's hard for us to picture different ways of doing things. This third episode is adapted from an account by a Chinese scholar who visited the United States in 1899. (Hwuy-yung, *A Chinaman's View of Us and of His Own Country*, London, Chatto & Windus, 1927.)

3. Their clothing is very strange. It is tight and so uncomfortable I could not bend my knees. They have a great number of slits in their clothes leading into small bags. This is a curious device for storing many items, such as coins, a cloth for the nose, a watch, paper, tobacco, pipe, matches, and many other things. I counted three in my trousers, as many as 5 in my jacket, 4 in my little undercoat, making 12 in all. Surely if they put an object in one of them, they may have to hunt through all 12 to find it again....

   I went a moon before with my instructor to see the game they call Foo-pon (football). It is played in winter season and requires strength and activity. Within edge were three ten thousand men and women. They came from what place to watch?

   The game was same as a battle. Two groups of men struggling. These young, strong, quick men, what do they do? Men on one side try to kick a goose-egg pattern ball between two poles that form a gate or entrance. They run like rabbits, charge each other like bulls. They knock each other down trying to send the ball through the enemy's poles. When ball is kicked good and then caught, the voices of the people burst forth like a huge wave dashing against a cliff. Men and women mad with excitement yell and scream at the players.

   Questions

   1. What were the slits leading to small bags?

   2. How would you describe football to the Chinese visitor?

   3. Do you think the Chinese scholar might make mistaken judgments of American culture?

LESSON 5: COMMUNICATION, PAST AND PRESENT

By John Boeschen and David C. King

This is a good set of activities to use toward the end of the school year - to pull together some of the knowledge and skills acquired previously. The class will use material from a number of subject areas to measure the impact of modern technology on communication - and how this influences our lives. By comparing the present speed of communication to the speed that persisted through almost all of human history, they'll develop a new, sharper awareness of how time and space shrank in just a few years.

AREAS OF STUDY

Language Arts (writing and reading skills)

Science (space technology)

Mathematics

Geography

Social Studies (U.S. and World History)

SUGGESTED TIME 3-5 class periods

OBJECTIVES

Students will

1. recognize that through most of human history, communication was limited by the time available and the distance humans, or humans with animals, could travel;

2. on the basis of a case study of experimenting with camels in the westward movements, infer that, as recently as a century ago, people faced the same communications limitations as had people centuries earlier;

3. prepare and give (or listen to) a report on the Landsat Space Satellites as evidence of modern revolutions in technology;

4. use mathematics and mapping skills to compute time and distance of communication;

5. give examples of how modern revolutions in communications have influenced the lives of all people.

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS

The lesson is divided into three activities, with the first two being stories about attempts to communicate with as much speed as possible. The first story is about the great runner, Pheidippides, in 490 B.C.; the second, an experiment in using camels in the westward movement of the U.S. Both stories can be xeroxed for student reading, or be read aloud.

Here are the questions and research explorations for activity 1.

ACTIVITY ONE: THE FIRST MARATHON RUN

Introduce the story by explaining - or reminding - the class, that the world seemed much larger through most of human history than it does today. People could travel only so far; delivering messages over any distance was slow and questionable. They are going to read about one of the fastest communications achieved in earlier history. Since this great feat, no one until modern times could do much better - unless they used an animal to help them deliver the message.

THE LONG RUN

The year is 490 B.C. - well over 2,000 years ago. The place is ancient Greece. If you stand on a high ridge, you can look down on a broad plain. It is called the Plain of Marathon.

At one end of this flat land, you can see a huge army drawn up. The men are carrying bows and arrows. They number about 20,000. This is the great Persian army which has landed on the shores of Greece. The Persian generals are determined to conquer the city-states of Greece and add them to the huge Persian Empire.

Facing the Persians across Marathon is another army. This is the Greek army made up of men from Athens and a few other cities. Their light-weight armor glistens in the sun. Their weapons are spears. Their army is only about half the size of the Persians.

This is a grim moment for the Athenians and their allies. The Persian army looks huge and powerful. If the Greeks should lose this battle, they will lose their freedom and independence. The democracy of Athens will be replaced by the rule of the Persians.

There was still one hope for the Athenians. If they had the help of Sparta they could win. Sparta was the Greek city with the most powerful army in the land. A few days earlier, the Athenian general had sent Pheidippides with a message to Sparta. The message told of the Persian invasion and asked for the Spartans to send an army. Pheidippides was known as the fastest runner in all of Greece.

Suddenly, a lone figure appears on the edge of the ridge. He runs smoothly down the hill toward the Greek camp. It is Pheidippides, returning with the message from Sparta.

The general and his commanders gather around as Pheidippides runs into the camp. They can tell by his stride that he is exhausted. They give him water and a few moments to rest. Still gasping for breath Pheidippides gives his message. The news is not good.

"I reached Sparta, sir," he says. "But the city is celebrating its holy days. They will not be ready to send an army for at least seven days."

The general's face hardens. They cannot wait seven days. The Persians will attack before then. He looks at Pheidippides. "You have served your country well," the general says. "No one knew you could make such a journey so fast. Now we must act on your news."

That night the Greeks prepared for the one move that could save them. A surprise attack. All night they worked, moving silently into position.

As the eastern sky turned gray with light, the Greeks were ready. Their army stretched across the Marathon Plain and they advanced on the enemy. The Persians had not even set out guards. They were sure the Greeks were not ready to fight.

One of the Persians spotted the advancing army. He sounded the alarm. Trumpets blared. Soldiers, still groggy with sleep, groped for their weapons.

But it was too late. The Greeks were on them before they could string their bows. And fighting at close quarters made the bows almost useless. Despite the larger army they faced, the Greeks had the upper hand. Before the day ended, the Persians retreated in a mad rush to the protection of their ships. In one great battle, the Athenians and their allies had saved their land from invasion.

But still the Persian threat was not ended. The Athenian general called his commanders together. "This has been a great victory," he said, "but the battle may not be over. The Persian fleet could still attack the city of Athens. Our families there could not know of our victory here. They might be tricked into surrendering."

One of the commanders said, "We are 25 miles from Athens, general. The fleet can sail there faster than our army can travel. How can we let them know we have won here and are now marching to Athens?"

"There is only one way," the general said, "Pheidippides has already shown us what he can do. If he leaves now, he might arrive in Athens before the Persians can."

Despite his exhaustion, Pheidippides agreed to try. He knew that he could outrun anyone else in the army. He knew the warning must be given.

With the soldiers cheering him on, Pheidippides set off on his lonely run. He did not stop for water or rest. There was no time. After hours of running, Athens was in sight. He was stumbling now, his heart pounding in his chest. A great crowd gathered as he staggered into the market place. He gasped out his news: "We have won the battle! Athens is saved!"

The people of Athens would now know what to do if the Persian fleet appeared. They were saved but the news cost Pheidippes his life. He had used every ounce of strength in his body. While the crowd watched in horror, he collapsed to the stones and died. His feat was never forgotten as the most heroic race in history.

QUESTIONS

1. Use a map of ancient Greece to answer the following:

   a. About how many miles did Pheidippides cover in his run to Sparta and back? To Athens?

   b. What kind of country did he have to travel over on both runs. Look for barriers like mountains or rivers. What areas would be difficult to travel by foot? Which would be easy and quick for a runner?

   c. Trace on the map the routes Pheidippides might have taken from the Marathon Plain to Sparta, and from the Plain to Athens.

2. Today we think of Greece as a small country. Find out the distance from north to south; east to west.

   a. Cut out an outline map of Greece and lay it over a map of the U.S. which uses the *same* scale of miles. How does Greece compare in size to the United States?

   b. If you could run 22 miles in 3 hours, how long would it take you to run from the north of Greece to the south? Does this give you some idea of why the ancient Greeks thought of their land as being very large.

3. Research: The Marathon is now one of the great races of the Olympic Games. Find out when the race first became part of the Olympics. What distance does it cover and how was that distance decided upon? How does this compare with the distance Pheidippides ran from Marathon to Athens?

(Answers: The distance from Marathon to Athens was a little more than 22 miles. The Marathon was first run in the "modern" Olympics in 1896. In 1908, a distance was settled on when the games were held in London: 26 miles, 385 yards; the distance from Windsor Castle to the finish line in the Olympic Stadium. Students will find such information in almost any encyclopedia.)

ACTIVITY TWO: THE GREAT CAMEL EXPERIMENT

In U.S. history courses, students normally encounter the major developments in communication achieved in the 19th century. Apart from direct communications developments, like the telegraph, the short-lived Pony Express, the stage coach, and the telephone, innovations in transportation - like the railroad - also helped to shrink time and space. The story of the Great Camel Experiment is fun for the students and will also impress upon them why technological innovations made such a great difference in the sending and receiving of messages. The increased speed of communication, in turn, made important contributions to the settlement of the West.

THE GREAT CAMEL EXPERIMENT

The great experiment first started in the late 1840's. It came about because of the vast stretches of wilderness in the western part of the country. Settlers leap-frogged the Great Plains because they didn't think the sod could be plowed. So they tended to move all the way west to California and Oregon.

This westward migration caused a problem for the United States Army. They had the task of protecting settlers moving west. But, there were great stretches of unsettled land, rugged mountains, and areas where there was little water. The army needed fast communications and fast transportation.

Jefferson Davis was one of the first government leaders to show interest. A few years after the experiment was suggested, he proposed supporting it, in a speech to Congress. In 1855, Congress set aside $30,000 for the purchase of camels.

People laughed at the idea. When the ship "Supply" docked at Indianola, Texas in 1856, a big crowd turned out. Thirty three camels were pulled ashore, fighting and spitting and delighting the onlookers.

They were taken to a fort 60 miles southwest of San Antonio. There the army tried some experiments with them. In one test, camels and horses were sent to San Antonio for supplies. Each camel easily carried 600 pounds; six of them carried as much as 12 horses could haul in wagons. And they made the 60-mile trip in two days, 6 hours. The horses took 4 days.

In 1857, Lt. Edward F. Beale left Fort Defiance, New Mexico, with a work crew and 20 camels. Their task was to build a wagon road to California. The trail-blazing took 48 days and the solders were surprised at how fast they could travel. One soldier wrote in his diary: "As for food, they live on anything. Yesterday they drank water for the first time in 26 hours. Although the day was hot, they did not seem thirsty. The mules would be useless without water." And they found that camel-mounted scouting parties could return with messages faster than on horses.

Lieutenant Beale was convinced. He felt camels would be far better in the West than horses or mules. They could travel farther, faster, and with less water. He helped set up a plan using the camels to communicate between forts. This helped when a party of settlers encountered hostile Indians. An army scounting party with just one camel could send for help in a hurry.

But the experiment ended in 1863. The Civil War had started 3 years earlier. The government needed the cavalry to fight the war. The camels were left behind. In February, 1864, the government sold its entire herd of 33 camels at public auction.

After the Civil War, the experiment was not tried again. What things happened to make people lose interest in the camels?

QUESTIONS

1. Compare the camel's ability to other means of sending messages by answering these questions:

   a. Lt. Beale's camels went 26 hours without water. If they could travel 60 miles in 54 hours, how many times would they need water? (3: at the beginning, at the 1/2 way point and, one would imagine, at the end of the journey)

   b. How many trips could a camel make between two communications posts 6 miles apart without water? (almost 5 trips)

   c. A camel could travel 60 miles in two days and six hours. At that rate, how long would it take a camel to travel from San Francisco to New York? (about 112 days, 12 hours - allow some variation)

2. Research: Using texts and outside sources, have the class - or a research group - describe what inventions would make the camel less advantageous - either for sending messages or for carrying supplies. Careful attention should be paid to the dates of developments (like the telegraph), when these were used in the western states and territories, and why they helped make camels "obsolete" in the U.S.

3. Writing: Give the class samples of newspaper writing around 1870. (The early writings of Mark Twain would do, relying on his newspaper stories). Then have the students try to write their own articles on the Great Camel Experiment.

ACTIVITY THREE: LANDSAT: THE EYE IN THE SKY

Since these lessons are still in an experimental stage, we have to do a bit of a cop-out here. This activity should make use of color photographs which are beyond the scope of an experimental publication. You can get around this by turning the activity into a research assignment - one which the class will find stimulating and which will give them new insights into modern communications systems.

Landsat 1 is a space satellite which was launched July 23, 1972. It was expected to operate for about one year. At last report, it is still returning valuable data. Landsat 2 joined it in early 1975.

The satellites circle the globe 14 times every 24 hours. (Compare that to our Marathon runner!) They have become data collectors on a global scale. A research assignment can be developed in science and geography classes which would explore how these satellites have communicated information that has been helpful in such areas as:

weather	locating resources
communication systems	finding water in arid regions
farming	spotting industrial polluters.
flood protection	

Different research teams would prepare reports on each of these topics, using as many photographs as they can find. Research librarians should be able to help locate sources at an easy reading level. A publication called *New Horizons* (a 40-page booklet produced by NASA) is available for $2.00 from the U.S. Government Printing Office, Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D.C. 20402 (Stock No. 033-000-00631-4). The July, 1976 issue of *National Geographic* contains dazzling photographs and solid information - although the reading level is difficult.

Discussion should include such questions as:

1. How has Landsat helped improve global communication in all these areas?

2. How have other satellites improved communication from one part of the world to other parts?

3. Why does Landsat make the world seem much smaller than it appeared to the Greeks in 490 B.C. or to Lieutenant Beale in the 1850's?

LESSON 6: WHO LIKES ANIMALS?

By David C. King

The two short stories and poem have to do with people's feelings about animals. One story is by the great Russian novelist, Turgenev; the other, by a 10-year old girl from India; the poem is a traditional Mexican verse of unknown origin. The point of this brief collection is simple and doesn't require a great deal of analysis: People throughout the world have special feelings about animals . The topic could have been houses, secret places, friendships, mothers - just about anything. By exposing students to common themes in artistic expression from various cultures, you will help them internalize the notion that *all humans share common needs, interests, and concerns.*

AREAS OF STUDY

Language Arts (Reading, poetry, creative writing)

Music)
Art) optional
Dance)

SUGGESTED TIME 1-2 class periods

OBJECTIVES

Students will

1. recognize that people in all cultures have special feelings about animals and pets;
2. describe a special experience over their own involving animals;
3. strengthen awareness of basic human commonalities.

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS

Simply reproduce the stories and poem for student reading or for reading aloud. Talk with the class about what the feelings are and point out that the readings come from 3 different countries. Ask volunteers to write their own stories or poems about special experiences they have had with wild animals or pets. You don't have to lean too hard on the goal of the lesson - that people everywhere share common, special feelings about animals; the students will grasp the idea readily enough. This will be especially true if you follow through with other stories from around the world that deal with other common themes.

Extending the Lesson: This simple but important idea is easily extended to other means of expressing feelings - art, sculpture, music, drama and dance.

THE SPARROW
by Ivan Turgenev - a famous Russian writer
who lived in the 19th century

I was returning home from a day's hunting, walking toward the house along a path in my garden. My dog was running ahead of me.

Suddenly, the dog slowed her pace and crept forward. She had caught the scent of game.

I looked down the path and saw a young sparrow. It had a streak of yellow near its beak and a bit of puff on its head. Clearly it had fallen out of its nest. (A strong wind was swaying the birch trees.) The tiny bird sat there, trying helplessly to flap its wings. But it was too young and the wings were of no use.

My dog was stealing closer when suddenly an older black-chested bird fell like a stone right in front of the dog's face. All its feathers were standing on end and it was uttering a desperate, pitiful chirp. It hopped once and then again in the direction of the dog's jaw.

The bird had thrown itself in front of the dog to shield its young one. But its own small body was trembling with terror. Its little voice was frenzied and hoarse, and it was numb with fright. The bird was sacrificing itself!

What a huge monster the dog must have seemed to the mother sparrow! Even so, it could not bear to stay on its high, safe perch in the tree. A force stronger than its will to remain alive made it hurl itself to the rescue.

The dog, named My Treasure, stopped still and then backed up. He, too, seemed to recognize this force.

I quickly called off the dog and we continued on our way. I was awed.

Yes, do not laugh. I was awed by that small, heroic bird, by its impulse of love.

Love, I felt more than ever, is stronger than death or the fear of death. Only through love is life sustained and nourished.

GOODBYE MR. CHIPS!*

By Kavita Kapur, age 10, India

Squirrels are lovely little creatures, as I have learnt from experience. It had always been my greatest wish to pick up a squirrel, but my wish seemed never to come true.

But the other day I was taking a walk alone in my garden when I heard a soft thud, and looking down I saw a baby squirrel had fallen out of a tree and was on the ground beside me. The little thing was too stunned to move, so I gently picked it up and carried it in. I quickly prepared a box with some soft cotton-wool inside, and placed the squirrel in it.

By this time my family came, and since we are all animal lovers we were greatly excited and happy. We watched over it like birds over their eggs, and soon the tiny ball of fur stirred. I dashed to the kitchen, warmed some milk and put some into a dropper. Unfortunately the first time we put it into the animal's nose!

At last the poor fellow, obviously tired and fed up of seeing us standing there helplessly, caught hold of the dropper and began to suck milk with great tranquillity.

As days passed it grew disgustingly fat, but could still rush about at a remarkable pace. We christened it "Chippy."

Chippy, I am sorry to say, did not have good manners. I once woke up in the middle of the night to see Chippy scampering up and down my father who was asleep, peacefully unaware of what was happening. I tried in vain to catch the little fellow, but did not succeed. At last I lured Chippy into a trap by offering him bread soaked in milk which made his mouth water. As he came nearer I pounced on him and put him back in his box.

Every member of our family used to come home from school, office, etc. and enquire about Chippy. Even my father talked to him!

One day, I upset the sugar bowl and before I could say "Christopher Columbus" Chippy was on the tea-tray eating sugar! After this he got very spoilt for everyone fed him sugar.

I came home from school one day and could not find Chippy! I searched frantically and at last found him curled up, fast asleep, in my father's coat pocket.

I knew I was lucky to have him, but I had a feeling he was going to leave us and run away soon. I was right, for on coming home one day, I learnt that the "bird had flown."

*Shankar Pillai, Children's Book Trust, New Delhi, India

I was not very unhappy for I knew that Chippy was supposed to be a wild, free animal. We went to have a look at his family tree, but there were so many squirrels there it was hard to tell which one was my very own Chippy. I then realized it was "Goodbye, Mr. Chips" forever.

DON GATO*
Traditional Mexican rhyme

1. Oh, Senor Don Gato was a cat,
On a high red roof Don Gato sat.
He went there to read a letter,
meow, meow, meow,
Where the reading light was better
meow, meow, meow,
'Twas a love note for Don Gato!

2. "I adore you!" wrote the lady cat,
Who was fluffy, white, and nice and fat.
There was not a sweeter kitty,
meow, meow, meow,
In the country or the city,
meow, meow, meow,
And she said she'd wed Don Gato!

3. Oh, Don Gato jumped so happily
He fell off the roof and broke his knee,
Broke his ribs and all his whiskers,
meow, meow, meow,
And his little solar plexus,
meow, meow, meow,
"¡Ay caramba!" cried Don Gato!

4. Then the doctors all came on the run
Just to see if something could be done,
And they held a consultation,
meow, meow, meow,
About how to save their patient,
meow, meow, meow,
How to save Senor Don Gato!

5. But in spite of everything they tried
Poor Senor Don Gato up and died,
Oh, it wasn't very merry,
meow, meow, meow,
Going to the cemetery,
meow, meow, meow,
For the ending of Don Gato!

*Reprinted from Beatrice Landeck, *Learn To Read To Learn*, N.Y. : David McKay & Co., 1975, p.52-53.

6. When the funeral passed the market square
Such a smell of fish was in the air.
Though his burial was slated,
meow, meow, meow,
He became reanimated,
meow, meow, meow,
He came back to life, Don Gato!

SUBJECT AREA INDEX